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OTTOMAN TURKISH.
BY J. W. REDHOUSE.

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## SIMPLIFIED GRAMMAR

OP THE

## 0TTOMAN-TURKISH LANGDAGE.

J. W. REDHOUSE, M.R.A.S.,

HON. MEMBER OP THE ROTAL BOCIETY OF IITERATUEE,

LONDON:
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## ERRATA.



## PREFACE.

 highly polished branch of the great Turkish tongue, which is spoken, with dialectic variations, across the whole breadth, nearly, of the middle region of the continent of Asia, impinging into Europe, even, in the Ottoman provinces, and also, in Southern Russia, up to the frontiers of the old kingdom of Poland.

The Ottoman language is, in its grammar and vocabulary, fundamentally Turkish. It has, however, adopted, and continues more and more to adopt, as required, a vast number of Arabic, Persian, and foreign words (Greek, Armenian, Slavonic, Hungarian, Italian, French, English, \&c.), together with the use of a few of the grammatical rules of the Arabic and Persian, which are given as Turkish rules in the following pages, their origin being in each case specified.

The great Turkish language, تُ تُرْ tůrkje, Ottoman and nonOttoman, has been classed by European writers as one of the "agglutinative" languages; not inflecting its words, but
"glueing on," as it were, particles, " which were once independent words," to the root-words, and thus forming all the grammatical and derivative dcsinences in use.

To my mind, this term "agglutinative," and its definition, are inapplicable to the Turkish language in general, and to the Ottoman Turkish in particular. These are, essentially and most truly, inflexional tongues; none of their inflexions ever having been "independent words," but modifying particles only.

The distinctive character of all the Turkish languages, or dialects, is that the root of a whole family, however numerous, of inflcxions and derivations, is always recognizable at sight, seldom suffering any modification whatever, and always standing at the head of the inflexions or derivations, however complex in character these may be. When a modification of a root-word does take place, it is always of the simplest kind, always the softening of a hard or sharp consonant into the corresponding more liquid letter, and always of the final consonant only of the root. Thus, $a \operatorname{cr} b$ or sometimes becomes a s, a ق becomes a $_{\dot{\mathcal{E}}}$, a sharp Arabic becomes a soft Persian © , or the Ottoman modification of this latter, which is then pronounced like our most useful consonant $y$, or, in case of a dominant $o$ or $u$ vowel in the root, is pronounced like our consonant $w$.

The Ottoman Turkish has more vowel-sounds (eleven in number) than any other tongue known to me. As each of these may have a short and a long modification, they make twenty-two possible vowels in all. Every one of these is distinguished by a special mark in the transliterations of the present treatise, though it is impossible to attempt any such differentiation in the Arabic characters to which the Ottoman language is wedded.

The rules of euphony regulate the pronunciation of every word in the Ottoman language; perfectly, in all of Turkish origin; and as far as is practicable, in what is radically foreign.

Although a compound word is a thing totally unknown to the Turkish dialects, and of very rare occurrence in Arabic, the Ottoman language abounds with such, adopted from the Aryan, compounding Persian.

Persian grammarians and writers first learnt how to mould into a harmonious whole the incongruous Aryan Persian and Semitic Arabic elements. Ottoman ingenuity has gone a step further, and blended in one noble speech the three conflicting elements of the Aryan, Semitic and Turanian classes of vocables.

Fault is found by some with this intermixture of idioms;
but an Englishman, of all the world, will know how to appreciate a clever mosaic of diction; and a real student of the language will learn to admire many a true beauty, resulting from a masterly handling of the materials at his command, by any first-rate Ottoman literary celebrity, whether prosewriter or poet.

Note.-The manuscript of the present sketch Grammar was completed before Christmas, 1882, and copies of my table of identic alphabets have been in the hands of a ferv friends for the last four or five years. I have just had the pleasure and privilege of reading the admirable and exhaustive treatise on "The Alphabet," by the Rev. Isaac Taylor, and am rejoiced to find that he has come to the same conclusion as to the identity of the three; probably at an earlier date than the time, perhaps twenty years ago, when the idea began to force itself on my mind. I still feel inclined, however, to hold by the inference that the Phenicians gave the alphahet to Italy, quite independently of the Greek action whick later on doubtlessly influenced the Italian culture.

London,
September, 1883.
J. W. R.

## OTTOMAN TURKISH GRAMMAR.

## CHAPTER I.

The Letters and Orthography.
Section I. The Number, Order, Forms, and Names of the Letters.

There are thirty-one distinct letters used in the Ottoman language. Some of these have more than one value; and four of them are sometimes consonants, sometimes vowels. There is also a combination of two letters into one character, $y^{y}$ or $\bar{y}$, là, which Arabian piety has agreed to count as a letter, and which Persian and Turkish conformity has had no option but to adopt. Thirty-two letters have, therefore, to be named and enumerated, as follows:-





The foregoing is the ordinary arrangement of the letters of the Ottoman alphabet, as learnt and repeated by children;
excepting that they are not at first taught to mention, or to know, either of the three Persian letters, pe, $\mathbb{C}^{\text {chlm, and }}$ $\bar{j}$ zhe, which are not contained in the Arabic alphabet, their sounds and values being unknown to, and unpronounceable by, an Arab. It is called the ellff-bé, الفس به, i.e., the alphabet; and it might be conveniently styled the alphabet by forms; letters of the same form being brought together in it, more or less.

There is another very different order necessary to be learnt of the twenty-nine Arabic letters. It is called ebjed, and is arranged in eight conventional words, as follows:



The letters of the Arabic alphabet, as arranged in this èbjèd series, have each a numerical value. The first nine in order represent the nine units, 1 to 9 ; the second nine stand for the tens, also in order, 10 to 90 ; the third nine count as the hundreds, serially, 100 to 900 ; the twenty-eighth in the series, $\dot{\varepsilon}$, stands for 1000 ; and the last, 8 , though always enumerated, has no value of its own, but counts as the sum of the values of its two components, $J 30,11$; i.e., as 31 .

This system appears to have been in use in very early times indeed. The order of the letters in it is that of the Hebrew alphabet, as far as this goes; that is, as far as the

alphabet terminates. The letters of the two last words (omitting now all consideration of the factitious $\bar{\gamma}$ ) are Semitic inventions of a comparatively modern date, and are modifications, by means of dots, of letters, undotted or dotted, represented in the Hebrew alphabet. Thus, $ث$ is modified
 $\dot{\varepsilon}^{\text {from }} \varepsilon$. This may be called the numeral alphabet.

A circumstance that invests this ebjed arrangement with a European antiquarian interest of the very highest order, is the fact that it proves, beyond the remotest shadow of a doubt, the unity of origin of the Semitic (usually taken to be Phenician, but I imagine it to be much more ancient than Moses, or even Abraham), the Greek, and the Latin alphabets. Not only can the now divergent forms of each separate letter in the series be traced through successive modifications back to one ancient Phenician character, but the order of the whole series from $\mid$ to $ت$ is absolutely identical in the Arabic (Hebrew, Phenician), Greek, and Latin alphabets, as the following synopsis shows. An additional proof is furnished by the identity of the numeral values of the letters in the Arabic and Greek alphabets,-a method totally unknown to the Latins, who must have had a method of their own, probably Etruscan, before they received their alphabet direct from the Phenicians, quite independently of the Greeks, and quite as early.


The apparent discrepancies and vacancies occurring on comparison of the three alphabets and the series of numerals, are in reality additional proofs of their absolute identity.

The two first letters call for no remark, though it is known to scholars that the Greek B has beeu degraded in Rumaic into a $V$, and the so-called modern Greek man is unable to prouounce a $b$, writing it, when necessary, $\mu \pi$. This combination in Greek words he reads and pronounces as though it were writteu $\mu \beta$.

[^0]The f, $\Gamma$, G, must originally have been a hard $g$. In modern Egyptian, as in Hebrew, and in Greek, it is so pronounced, though the rest of Arabia has softened it into the sound of our English $j$ or soft g, and though the Latins hardened it, apparently, into a K value.

The first serious remark is called for on our coming to the change made by both the Greeks and the Latins of the Semitic soft aspirate consonaut o into their vowel E. It would almost seem as though the old Phenicians used that letter as a fiual vowel, exactly as is done by the Persians and Turks at present. A more remarkable divergency, inexplicable to me, but parallel to the foregoing conversion, is the change made by the Greeks of the Semitic hard aspirate consonant $\tau^{\text {into their long vowel }} \mathbf{H}$, $\eta$, whereas the Latins preserved the letter as a consonant and as their sole aspirate, under the same written form as that used by the Greeks, H, h, and which was in reality the Phenician form of the letter.

The next remark is as to the Latin F, which the Greeks long ago discarded from their alphabet, after having in the first instance adopted it in its Phenician form 9 , and used it to represent the numeral 6. After discarding it as a letter, they continued to use it as a numeral, though with a corrupted, cursive form, 5 , to which they still, to this day,
 modification of its sound, from a $w$ or $v$ to an $f$, is of no
importance. The Arabs of to-day, having no $v$ letter or sound in their language, write the name of Her Majesty the Queen-Empress, Fiktoriya.
As the Greek phonetic value of Z exactly corresponds to the Semitic power of $j$, their numeral value being identical, and the form of the Latin $G$ being merely a modification, one is tempted to imagine that originally the Latin power of this letter was soft $g$, our $j$, perhaps even our $z$. Certain it is that in some dialects of Italian a $z$ is used in words where a soft $g$ is found in other dialects.

The Greeks made the Semitic binto their © ; the Latins, having no such sound, discarded the letter.

The Semitic being both a consonant, like our $y$, and also a long vowel, i , it followed, as a matter of course, that both Greeks and Latins should make it into the vowel $i$. But the Latins preserved its consonantal use also as an initial ; though they forgot, or never realized, that it is a consonant in that position. We now use a $y$ to express that value; but the Germans have adopted the Latin modification $j$ to represent it. Three western letters, $i, j, y$, are now used for the one Semitic s.

The next four letters require no comment; but the Semitic $س$ of the eastern Arabs is not a good parallel for the Greek E. The Hebrew letter D, that holds its place in the alphabet, is the equivalent of the Arabic $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, and the western

alphabet, making the fifth word صصغض, the letter being the exact equivaleut of the Hebrew $y$ in place and in power. The $ص$ is a better representative of $\Xi$ than the $س$, but the two sounds are still very remote from one another. I should be inclined to suggest that when the Greek alphabet was formed, the Semitic $A$ held the place afterwards taken by the $ص$ and the $س$. The Greek $\Xi$ is an attempt to represent our value sh, as is seen in the name Xerxes, of which the old Persian was Khsharsha. The Latins dropped this letter, whichever it really was.

The conversion of Semitic consonantal $\varepsilon$ into Greek and Latin vowel $o$ is not urnatural. This letter $\mathcal{E}^{\text {is absolutely }}$ unpronounceable by any other than a Semitic. It is a kind of convulsion in the throat; and as the two aspirates were converted into vowels, so was this guttural. This was so much the more to be expected, as the Semitic letter 1, which became Greek and Latin $a$, is also a guttural consonant, serving likewise as a long vowel on occasions. It is the soft guttural, of which the $\mathcal{E}$ is the hard parallel; and an $o$ may well be looked upon as a hard $a$.

What the Arabians use as $f, \boldsymbol{\omega}$, is read in Hebrew, as in Greek and Latin, $p$. Even the Arabians, when they have to express a foreign letter, $p$, which they cannot pronounce, write and pronounce it as a $b$, or as $f$. The next letter, ص or $\dot{\boldsymbol{\nu}}$, is dropped in both Greek and Latin. It appears never to bave been used in Greek, even as a numeral ; differing in
that respect from the $\boldsymbol{\tau}$. When this latter was dropped as a letter, it was retained, modified, as a numeral. But the omitted letter $ص$ became the numeral $\sigma a ́ \mu \pi \iota$, خ representing 900 instead of 90 .

From this omission of the $ص$ from its proper place in the Greek numerals, a slip of the whole subsequent series became necessary, so that each letter, from $\boldsymbol{\xi}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}, \mathrm{Q}$, onwards, had a higher numeral value by one degree in the Semitic than its representative had in Greek; ق standing for 100, while 9 has the value of 90 only; , represents 200 , while P stands for 100 only ; \&c. This slip is very remarkable; it was filled up further on by 3900 .

Although the six "additional" letters of the Semitic and Greek alphabets have no relation to each other as representatives of sound, their numerical value goes on exactly in the same order observed in those of the original series, and with the same slip up to $\dot{\dot{\varepsilon}}$, representing 1000, while $\partial$ is only 900 . On the other hand, however, the three Greek additionals, $v, \phi, \chi$, are evidently the originals in form of the Latin $u, v, x$, and the Semitic $b$ is possibly the original of the Latin Z. This letter is usually attributed, by ancient and modern authors, to the Greek $\zeta$, which it certainly agrees with in shape, though not in sound.

The forms of the Arabic and Persian Ottoman letters given above are those of the isolated characters. They are liable
to various modifications, according to their being initials, medials, or finals, in a combination of written letters.

In the first place, they may, in this respect, be conveniently divided into two classes : those which join on to the following

 The latter, the less numerous class, are: $1,3, j, j, j, j, g$ and

 , عْ

All the letters join on in writing to the character that precedes them (other than to the eight enumerated above) whether they be themselves finals or medials. As finals their forms are as follows : $\bar{\square}, \stackrel{\sim}{\circ}$, , هَّ



[^1]

 Longer combinations vary, ad infinitum, as follows : حِرْت,



Besides the simple names of the letters hitherto mentioned, most of the characters have other, more complicated appellations.

The $I$ is usually called hèmze, Arabic word; and ellifl mêmdūdé, آلْف مَمْدُودَr, prolonged 1, when it is a long vowel, initial or medial. It can never be a long final vowel in an Arabic word, being then always

 final. It is then more commonly written $v$ in classical Arabic; but by no means always so. In Persian and Turkish, or foreign words, the 1 is always a vowel, but is called indifferently ellf and hèmze. It is always long in Persian words, when medial or final. When initial in a Persian word, it may be short or long. When a long initial, it is distinguished, as in Arabic, by the sign medd, "مدّ (־) over it, as:
 generally a consonant, and may take the sound 'a or ' $火$, of 'l,
or of 'd. When a short initial in Persian, it is a vowel, and may have any one of the three values $\hat{d}$ or $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{u}$. The details of the powers of 1 in Turkish words are given further on.

The $ب$ is distinguished from the other letters of the same


 sellese), the triply-dotted $ث$. The $\boldsymbol{*}$ is further distingnished
 qârâshåt), the تof (the word) قَرشَشَتْ ; while b is named
 is distinguished, as a medial or initial, frow the $\mathcal{\checkmark}$, then iden-
 q1yyè), superiorly double-dotted; whereas the $s$ is then


 I do not recollect the expression. It is, however, distin-
 'drdbīyyè), the Arabian بَ باكَ فَارِيَّهَ


The simple name of the $\quad$ جيم $\quad$ jim, sufficiently distinguishes the letter from all other Arabic characters. It has, therefore, no other desiguation in purely Arabic works. It is, however,
distinguished from the Persian $c^{\text {by }}$ their being styled respec-


The $\tau$ and $\dot{\tau}^{\text {are distinguished from one anether by the }}$ terms حاَي (khāł md̉jèmè) distinguished (dotted) $\dot{\sim}$, respectively.
 $\tau^{\text {, and }}$, These two pairs of Arabic and Persian adjectives ge all through the alphabet, in the cases where a dot is the sole distinction betwcen two letters of the same form ; as, دَالِ مهْهْ (dâll mảhmèlè) د ; ذَالِ مَعْجَمَه (zāll mửjèmè) ذ. So alse the distinctions by the words of the "numeral alphabet;" as,




When we come te $\omega$, the written names of the letters are so distinct of themselves, that no addition is necessary for

 With o a distinction again comes in, te differentiate the letter
 $\tau^{\text {is then termed حَاء حُطّى (hä’ hutti); and } v \text { is termed, as }}$



The Persian and $E^{\text {are distinguished as is described }}$



There remains now to distinguish, among consonants, the different sorts of used in Ottomau Turkish, and to poiut out their several names, as follows: The original Arabian
 Arabian $\leftrightarrow$; its value is that of our $k$. This letter was next used by the Persians for their hard $g$; it was then, and is still, distinguished by the name of كَ كَفَ (kyāfl fâristyye,
 vulg. kefi (âjâmi). This variety is sometimes distinguished, in writing, in one or the other of two different methods. The Persians themselves mark the difference by doubling the upper dash of the letter in all its written variations-isolated, initial, medial, and final ; thus : سگ, ; , whereas the original Arabian $₫$, when isolated or final, has no dash at all;



When these two values of the one letter © passed into use for the Ottoman language, a new mode of distinguishing the Persian from the Arabian variety was introduced. It con-
sisted of placing three dots over the Arabian form of the $\leftrightarrows$, together with a single dash in non-final positions ; thus : © ك , كُ,
 letter.

But this letter, so differentiated in Persian writing, received in Ottoman Turkish a third value, that of our consonantal $y$, as a softened variety of its Persian value of hard $g$. This Ottoman value never occurs elsewhere than at the end, or

 it may begin or end a syllable: bè-yân-mèk, ly-rân-mèk. When this letter follows a $u$ vowel, and is itself followed by an $e$ vowel, it glides into the value of our $w$; as سوكُـ، (såwe), \&c.

In Turkish, the $\mathbb{S}$, retaining the same form, received another value still, the fourth; being then for distinction's

 is never initial. When medial, it may begin, and may also end a syllable, as it ends many words. The three dots over the © ( mentioned in the preceding paragraph, are used by some to designate this Turkish value of surd $u$; and at other times a single dot is used for that purpose, leaving the three dots to mark the Persian value of the letter. These varying
values of the constitute a serious difficulty in learning to read Ottoman Turkish. $S u r d$ is here transliterated $\tilde{n}$.

A similar variation in the phouetic value of the Arabic letter $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ is to be observed in Ottoman Turkish words. Originally it is, in an Ottoman mouth, a simple hard $g$; as:
 words it has a softened value, very much like that of our gh, but still more softened, even to the point of practically disappear-


 an $o$ or $u$ vowel, the $\dot{\varepsilon}$, in Turkish words, if followed by a vowel, glides into the value of our $w$, even as our own $g h$ does in the word throughout (pronounced thruwout); as: طُغَانَ




Section IL. The Phonetic Values of the Letters and VowelPoints, the Uses of the other Orthographic Signs, our System of Transliteration, and the Doctrine of Ottoman Euphony.

We must divide the thirty-one Ottoman letters (omitting $\gamma$ ) into vowels and consonants. But it must first be premised that every letter is sometimes a consonant, while only four of
them are sometimes vowels. These are $1, g, 0, \mathrm{~s}$. All the others, twenty-seven in form, are always consonants. It will be more convenient to treat of the four vowel letters first, together with the vowel-points, which are not letters, but simply marks.

Usually, the rowel-points, three only in number, are not written ; they are supposed to be known. But, in children's books, in Qur'ans, in books of devotion, \&c., they are written ; and sometimes in other books and papers also.

The vowel-points are named: 1, ủstůn, أُوستونٌ (over), the mark of which is a short diagonal from the right downwards towards the left, placed over any consonant ; as: 2, esèré, (no meaning), a similar diagonal, marked under
 ing), a small $g$-shaped mark, placed over any consonant; as: ,

These vowel-points mark, originally, the three Arabic short vowels, to which the additional Ottoman vowel-sounds, $\ddagger, a, a^{2}$ have been added. The ưstủn has the value of ${ }^{3}$ or e, according to the consonant, \&c., accompanying it; the esère has the
 to its accompaniment.

The short vowel-sound indicated by each of these three marks always follows, in pronunciation, the sound of the consonant to which it is appended; so that we have the following
 بُ bd, bư, bủ, bư ; and so on through the alphabet.

When it is required to make the vowel long, one of the three Arabic letters of prolongation, hưrūfl mèdd), has to be added to the consonant, still marked with its short vowel-point. The letters of prolongation, true long vowels, are I,, , $\mathcal{F}$; of which 1 always accompanies ưstủn, $ى$ always accompanies èsèré ; and $\boldsymbol{g}$ always accompanies ưtựử. We now have Ottoman syllabary No. 2,


We thus see that there are eleven Ottoman short vowels, and eight long. Our system of transliterating them is also made apparent. It is the simple method of using $a$ or $e$ to represent ${ }^{3}$ stãn, $i$ to represent dserè, and $o$ or $u$ to represent Alưrû. As these vowel-points shade off in phonetic value, we
 ủ, for ưtartủ. After long consideration, we have for some years past adopted this system, as the simplest, and, on the whole, the most rational.

The values of these Ottoman vowels are those of the vowels in the following eleven words. They are all familiar English words, excepting the French tu, the vowel of which is unknown in ordinary English, though it exists in the dialects of some of our counties. These words are: far, war, $a$-(bove),
pan, pen; pin, girl; so; put, tu, cur. We mark the vowels of these eleven guide-words to the Ottoman pronunciation, in the order in which they stand : fàr, wảr, ả̉bove, pán, pèn, pln, gîrl, só, pût, tẩ, cưr; and for the eight Ottoman long vowels we use: fār, wār, pīn, gīrl, sō, pūt, tũ, cūr. That is, nineteen Ottoman vowel-sounds in all, long and short. The student has but to remember the series of ten English words and one French, to become possessed of the key to the Ottoman vowel pronunciation. But he must learn never to swerve from the values of those guide-vowels. To an Englishman, with our slouchy method, this unswervingness is the most difficult point ; but, with a little patience at first, it is to be achieved. He must practice himself in pronouncing pashd, (not
 (not sén), bên, بَن (which he will at once pronounce right),

 (not gyuz or gyưz, though these are also words or syllables).

The English student of Turkish has to exert his utmost care, in respect of the Ottoman vowels, to break himself of the home method of pronouncing a short vowel, and the same vowel when long, in two very different ways. The Ottoman rowels remain always pure; they never change in phonetic value with a clange in phonetic quantity; thus, $\bar{a}$ is always $\bar{a}$
made long; $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ is aiways $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ long, $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ is always $\delta$ long, $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ is always u long, \&c., in the same word and its derivatives.

The student will have noticed above the Arabic sign of
 placed over a vowel, long or short.

The fourth Ottoman vowel letter, o, which, when a consonant, is the soft aspirate $h$, is also derived from the Arabic, but has a special history of its own. This letter is never used as a vowel in Arabic in any other position than that of a final to a noun, substantive or adjective, usually of the feminine gender, sometimes singular, and sometimes an irregular (broken, technically) plural. Such are the words-


In Arabic, these pronunciations (as modified in Ottoman Turkish, as to the vowels, and as to the consonants) are those of the words when they close a sentence or clanse in classical reading. They are also the pronunciations of the words in modern conversational Arabic.

But, originally, and to this day, in classical Arabic, those and all such words end not in a vowel at all. They all end in a consonant, in a letter $t$; which, for certain grammatical reasons, is never figured $ت$, but always appears in the shape of a letter surmounted by the two dots of the $ت$, thus $\overline{8}$. Our specimen words are therefore, origiually, خَلِّةْ klallifet,

vowels and consonants to be added to the termination of these in classical Arabic, to mark the case-endings or declinations.



 in a sentence or clause, the case-endings are dropped from the pronunciation, though still written in vowel-pointed books, and the word becomes simply khalife throughout. These indefinite case-ending marks are called in Turkish ايِكِى اؤتُرُ



A consideration now arose. In classical Arabic, final consonants may be either silent, or vocal with any one of the

 a sentence or clause, the final consonant is made silent; so that we have kêtébét, as before, for the first; but kettebt for all three of the remaining words. So ${ }^{\text {نَرْر , نصرْ , نَرْ , final, }}$
 tinguished by a servile 1 being added- $n$ nẩsrản ) remains fully pronouuced, or only loses the souud of the final $n$, and is read nâsrd.

When the final à of dropped frum the prouuciation, the letter might have been
dropped in writing also; for خَلِغَ would read khålife just as well. It could, however, and would, be read خَلئف khâlif, as Europe has done in making it into Caliph. It was necessary, then, to devise a method which should prevent the suppression of the vowel belonging to the last consonant of such words, aud yet not be liable to be pronounced as a $t$ with the case-endings. This convenient method was discovered by the arrangement adopted of suppressing the dots of the $\bar{a}$, and leaving the nude $\&$ appended to the word, as خَلِيَفه khâlife, \&e. By this method final a in such words became virtually a vowel in Arabic, though it is never mentioned as such in Arabic grammars or lexicons.

Persian has a very large number of nouns, substantive and adjective, that eud in an ưstủn vowel. When the Arabic alphabet became the sole mode of writing Persian, the Arab teachers would naturally use their quasi-vowel final o to represent that final Persian sound. Thus, بَّ
 was thus made a vowel in Persian also, wheu final. It was even made to follow one of the other two short vowels in very lare cases, when no other device was available. Thus we have the numeral $\underset{\sim}{\text { (sid }}$ ( $)$, three (in Ottoman Turkish
 When, by another historical step, Turkish began to be written in the Arabic characters modified by the special

Persian letters (Turkish scribes learning the method from Persian teachers in the land of Persia conquered by Turkisb invaders, who there embraced Islam), the use of as a final vowel was found so convenient as to be naturally adopted.
 Turkish gerunds, optatives, and imperatives of the third person, end with this vowel; we, therefore, have إيدة lde,


A further step was, therefore, possible to be taken in Ottoman Turkish, from which Persian writers had and have shrunk. The vowel s was used as a medial also, whenever it was found that its introduction served to distinguish two words written alike, but pronounced differently. Tbus bllmèk, could also be read بِلَّكُكْ bllemek. If the vowel-points were always marked, they would suffice for this case; but they are generally omitted. The gerund and optative or
 bilèmêk, the distinction was made clear. Hence, s as a medial Ottoman vowel, always indicating a preceding ưstûn short vowel-point, became fully established. This medial or final Turkish vowel \& never joins on to the next letter in writing;


From this sketch of the history of final and medial vowel o, we see plainly how fundamentally erroneous is the common

European (or rather English) method of transliterating such words with a final or medial $h$. The nearest approach to correctuess of which our orthography is capable, since we possess not the French $\dot{e}$ or German $e$, is to write all such words with a final a, as khalifa, Fatima, Mekka, Medina, Brusa, \&c. These are usual ; but $\underset{\sim}{\text { جِّ }} \underset{\text { ِ }}{ } J i d d a$, is usually spelt
 (usually Tangiers), \&c., have been made into monstrosities.

The phonetic value of an initial 1 is at first a difficulty to the European student, inasmuch as there appears to be nothing like it in Western languages. 'Ihis, however, is more apparent than real, when fully explained.

We must remember that in Arabic the initial 1 or $i$ is a consonant, not a vowel. Like any other initial consonant, it takes the three short vowel-points, and is then pronounced:
 generally named hémzé, as it is usually called in Arabic when a consonant (but never when a vowel of prolongation, or final and short); although, in Persian words, it is always a vowel, whether initial, medial, or final. With the short vowel-points, this initial 1 is always a short vowel in Persian words, and the Arabian hemze sign is never placed over it ; thus: ${ }_{i}^{i}$ er,



This initial short vowel Persian system was extended (in practice, not in theory) to all Arabic words used in Persian with $I$ for their initial letter. But ${ }^{〔}$ the Arabic consonantal i was then taken (in practice) to be a Persian vowel 1. Thus, أَبَوْبْ was read dbvāb, lbtldá, إْبْدَا

When, in Arabic, the vowel of the initial consonantal i became long, then, as with any other initial consonant, a vowel letter of prolongation,-a long vowel letter,-was appended to
 nounced ${ }^{1}$ i.

This system passed also into use in Persian words, the Arabic hèmze sign being omitted, even in Arabic words adopted into Persian ; and thus the combinations 11 , إى , أُ became the initial Persian long vowels; being pronounced



The Arabians found the use of $\|$ somewhat cumbersome. They therefore invented a sign, $\stackrel{\sim}{\text { مَ }}$ medd, to be placed over an initial 1, with or without the hemze sign, to designate the long vowel. Thus, instead of

 however, is still to be found in use in native Persian lexicons; where the first section of chapter $\mid$ is generally figured with the two $I I$, not with $T$.

It may be useful to mention here, that the Arabian writers employ this sign of medd to mark a medial or a quasi-final long vowel 1 , whenever this is followed in the word by a hêmzé, i.e., a consonantal 1. Thus they write
 Persian, as well as the final "; so that hámā is written, as well as pronounced, for 410 ; ; \& c.

If a medial consonantal hèmzè in an Arabic word be followed by a long vowel 1 , the two are united, as in the initial $T$, into one I letter with the medd sign over it; as $j^{j} \bar{L}_{0}$ máazal (for j(1). This also is adopted in Persian with such Arabic words as it occurs in; not being found in any original Persian words.

The medd sign is also used, in Arabic, sometimes taking another form, that of a small, perpendicular ', to mark the traditional omission, in writiug (not in pronunciation), of a long vowel 1 in a few well-known words, such as a d atah (for


This perpendicular small ellf-shaped medd is also placed, in Arabic, sometimes over a letter $g$, to mark that, though radically a, it is a long vowel $I$ in pronunciation, in the

 Persian and Turkish ${ }^{\circ}$ تَآلَا

The medd sign is sometimes placed, in Arabic, over a long vowel, or $\mathcal{v}$, when they are followed by a hemze in the same
 in Persian or Turkish.

It is also sometimes placed over a long vowel medial 1, when this letter is followed by a reduplicated consonant in
 Turkish.

Such of the foregoing Arabic usages as have been adopted in Persian for words of Persian or of Arabic origin, are also employed in Ottoman Turkish for the same words; though they are sometimes omitted in ordinary writing.

We now come to a purely Ottoman use of the medd sign, utterly unknown in Arabic and Persian. Thus: Whenever an initial vowel 1 of an Ottoman word of Turkish or foreign (European or Indian) origin has the short sound of a or $\mathcal{A}$, the medd sign is placed over it, as a distinction from the

 (Turkish; also Persian ; but two different words).

Another Ottoman peculiarity connected with the initial 1 , when followed in writing by a vowel , or $ى$, is that these two vowels are not necessarily long vowels in words of Turkish


directing vowels. In many old or provincial books and writings, these directing vowels are ofteu or systematically omitted, the writers, from labit, or system, adhering to the original Arabic method of spelling by short vowel-points, for the most part omitted in current writing. This makes such books and papers immensely difficult to read and understand.

The three Arabic long vowels, $1, g$, $\mathcal{E}$, having thus acquired a footing as Ottoman short directing-vowels, when following an initial letter 1 , it was found convenient to extend the system, and to use them as short directing-vowels, following initial or medial consonants, thereby departing entirely from the Arabic and Persian systems. There is no method in use for distinguishing a long vowel letter from a short one in an Ottoman word of Turkish or foreign origin. We may almost venture to say that all such medial vowel-letters in Turkish and foreign Ottoman words are short vowels; whereas, in Arabic and Persian words they are always long. Thus:
 كُورْهْهْ gyửrảnmèk.

Hitherto we have considered only the open syllables, that is, those which end with a vowel. We have now to treat of the closed syllables,--those which end with a consonant.

In the original Arabic system, when a word or syllable ended with a quiescent consonant,-a consonant not followed
by a vowel sound or vowel letter in the same syllable,-such consonant was marked, in pointed writings, by the sign ${ }^{\circ}$ placed over it, which, as was before remarked, is called jezm, جَزْ . Thus: بُبْ bèb, بَبْ bāb, بُبْ būb, بيب bīb, \&c.

It is a rule in classical Arabic, that two quiescent consonants cannot follow one another in the same syllable, whetber as initials or as finals. Such a word or syllable as crust, tart, blurt, firt, \&c., is unkuown. As far as two such initial consonants go, this rule prevails in the vernacular Arabic also, and has passed into the Persian and Turkish. Foreign words with such combinations of initial consonants to words or syllables are treated in one of two ways. When initial in a word, they may be separated into two syllables, either by a servile vowel 1, generally with an esere vowel, being prefixed; or by a vowel, generally èsére, being iutercalated; and when the combination is initial to a non-initial syllable of a word, the latter method alone is used, or the syllables are so divided as to separate the two consonants.

 tsvicher.

In classical Arabic, a final word in a phrase or clause could
 چزْ huza, \&c. This liberty is much used in Persiau, Turkish,
and foreign, as well as in Arabic Ottoman words; thus :


When a letter in an Arabic word ends one syllable, and begius the next in the same word, it is not written twice, but one sole letter is made to serve for the two, in pointed writings, by having a special mark, ", placed over it. This mark is an abbreviation of the Arabic word ${ }_{\circ}^{\sim}$ شٌ shedd, which means a strengthening, corroboration, reduplication. Thus we

 and in correct speaking, to redouble such letters in the pronunciation. We can derive a correct idea of this reduplication by studying our expressions, mid-day, ill-luck, run next, \&c. But, if such reduplicated Arabic word has passed into vernacular Ottoman use, then the redoubling is excused in
 alqtar ; \&e.

This reduplication is really unknown in Persian; consequently, reduplicated Arabic words are much used in Persian without reduplication; thus $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{K}}}$ is generally used in Persian as $\tilde{b}_{6}^{n}$ khatt, and has thence, as similar words, passed into Ottoman Turkish. On the other hand, pedautic imitation has commonly given to a few Persian words the Arabic peculiarity of reduplication, so passing into Ottoman also : thus,



This reduplicating system is not used in correctly writing Turkish Ottoman words, but it is sometimes met with in incorrect writings. The two letters should be written in



The Arabic word hemze, $8 j^{-0} 0$, besides being a name for the letter 1 , as before explained, is also the name of an orthographic sign, mark, or point, very variously used in Arabic and Persian. Most of the rules concerning it, which derive from the two languages, have passed into Ottoman Turkish, with an addition or two used in the Turkish transliteration of foreigu words. Turkish words never require the sign.

The hémzé sign, $r$, would appear to be a diminutive head of the letter $\varepsilon$, thus indicating to the eye the guttural nature of the vocal enunciation it represents; which is, in fact, a softened choke, in an Arab mouth. But in Persian and Turkish pronunciation it is a slight hiatus, at the beginning of a noninitial syllable, or at the end of any syllable, initial, medial or final. It is placed over a letter when it bears the ûstủn or ûtůrả vowel, or is quiescent ; under it, generally, with the essérè vowel.

The hemzed, in a word of Arabic origin, always represents a consonantal letter 1 , sometimes radical, sometimes servile.

In Persian words, the theory of the sign is the same as in Arabic, but the sign itself is always servile, and either final or nearly so.

When a hémzé, radical or servile, is initial in an Arabic word, it is never written or pronounced in Persian or Turkish. The 1 letter is then taken to be a vowel, and is treated accordingly. Thus, 0首 totl ; and short. So again,
 These initials are all servile, and short. The modes aud doctrine of making them into long vowels have already been described. In Persian, Turkish, and foreign words, an initial 1 is always a vowel, and is made long in the same way as if the word were of Arabic origin, as has been said before.

When a hemze, radical or servile, in an Arabic word, is medial or final, a rather numerous body of rules come into play. Sometimes the letter I, then always called hemze, is written, together with the hèmze sign over it, (as in رأس rèss), and sometimes the hemze sign above is figured, as a letter now, without the 1 , in the body of the word; as in يتَسَألؤْنْ yetessīdlūn. In the former of these two cases, the bémze is usually a final, quiescent consonant in its syllable ; as, رَأْمَتْ rè-fet, ${ }^{\circ}$ O initial consonant of its medial or final syllable, movent with
 be both; that is, a quiescent hèmzè may terminate one syllable, while another, a movent hèmzé, may begin the next syllable. In this case, as with any other consonant so occurring, one 1 alone is written, with a bèmze sign over it; and above this, the teshdid sign is superadded, with an ùstan sign over it again ; as in phrases ; but the explanation is needed, so as to make clear what follows.

This reduplicated medial hèmze, movent with ůstôn, is sometimes followed by a long vowel I. In this case, instead of writing, for instance, رَأَّ ridr-ās, the two letters 1 are combined into one, with the signs medd and hémze, and withont the ủstủn vowel ; thus, ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$ tion is of very rare occurrence, happening only in derivative words, of which the root is triliteral, with hemzè for second radical.

But a movent initial hemze of a syllable, medial in a word, may be followed by a long vowel I, without being reduplicated. It is then figured by a single written I with the hèmze and


These combinations, when nsed in Turkish, drop the hémze and têsbdid signs, but preserve the medd sign. The daståu vowel tlat precedes such medd sign is hardened from è into a,
on account of the following à, even with a preceding soft consonant.

But, when such medial or final bèmze is itself movent with Esere, it is no longer written in the form of 1 ; it then takes the form of $\mathfrak{c}$, without dots, and with a hemze sign over it;

 examples the vowels are long; but there are words in Arabic some perchance used in Turkish, in which they are short. Of course, the long vowel letters do not then follow the


Moreover, when such medial or final hèmzé, whether movent or quiescent, is preceded by a consonant movent with eseerel, the hèmzé is figured as a letter v ; and when movent with ưtưrư, the hemzè is written as a letter $g$; in either case


Such disguised medial hémzé may be followed by a long
 hêmzè be changed into a G figure, and be followed by a long vowel 1, it becomes changed in Turkish, and sometimes in
 rlpāsèt).

There is a striking peculiarity in certain Turkish Ottoman derivatives, which causes great embarrassment to students, and has filled continental Turkish dictionaries and grammars
with totally misguiding examples and rules of pronunciation, with regard to the interchangeable vowel-letters, and $ى$. The peculiarity arose, I imagine, when all Ottoman Turkish was provincial, and was governed by the pronunciation of Asia Minor, variously modified in its various provinces. Thus the earliest writers made use, in all such derivative words, of the vowel-letter $g$ (when they used any at all).

 These derivatives became, in course of time, in Europe, and in Constantinople, modified in pronunciation into gelltb, głdlb, qåchîb, qîrib, qưrub, bâshlỉ, ellt, \&c. The orthography, however, has remained sacred, excepting in the case of provincials, who sometimes write, as they pronounce,
 developed in the paragraphs on Euphony.

Proceed we now to the phonetic values of the consonants.
The letter ب, equally used in Ottoman words of Arabic, Persian, Turkisb, aud foreign origin, has the value of our $b$ generally, whether it be initial, medial, or final in a word.

 erib, حَرْبَ hadrb, F qålb; \&c. But when medial or final, ending a syllable or word, it sometimes, anomalously, takes
the value of our $p$. Thus it is common to hear,




The Persian letter is our $p$ in all positions: إِيبْ , tp. The Persian word word $\mathrm{t} \delta \mathrm{p}$, are usually written with

 it is sometimes changed into movent $د$ in derivatives, when it





The Arabic $\Delta$ is found in Arabic words only, and in a very few borrowed from the Greek. Its original value is that of
 was not as bad as our bishop for єтiбкотos. But in Turkisk and Persian this value is unknown ; the letter is pronounced as our $s$ (sharp, never $z$ ); dyd-sdulug is therefore the Turkish
 \&c. In some Arabic-speaking countries this letter has become


The Arabic ${ }^{\text {in Turkish }}$ is our soft $g$, which we represent
by a $j$ in all positions of all words, whatever their origin. Thus, speaking countries it is pronounced like our hard $g$; as, mèsgld, of $\mathcal{E}, q \cdot \nabla$.

The Persian ${ }^{\text {c }}$ bas the value of our $c h$ in church, of our tch in crutch. We never use the latter orthography in our trans-

号 chichek. In Turkish derivation, this letter, in Turkish or foreign (not Persian, and there are no Arabic) words, sometimes becomes Arabic $\underset{C}{ }$, but not as a rule.

The Arabic $\tau^{\text {has the harshly aspirated sound of our } h \text { in }}$ horse, hurl, her ; not its soft sound, as heard in head, him, half, \&c. It is chiefly used in Arabic words; as, $\quad$ حس hásàn,
 some adopt $h$, to distinguish it from 8, q.v. Aspirate it always.

The Arabic $\dot{\sim}$ has no equivalent in our language. It is the counterpart of the Scotch and German ch in loch, ich, \&c. It is generally transliterated $k h$, as in the present treatise. Until the student has learnt its true pronunciation, he should consider it as a variety of $h$, and never pronounce it as a $k$, especially when it is initial. Thus خِدْوْ khidiv (pronounce

 often used, provincially, for $ق$, and is itself sometimes pronounced ق. Thus, اَخْشَامْ ${ }^{2}$ âqshả̉m (for âkbshả̉m).

The Arabic $د$ is our $d$ in all classes of Ottoman words, and requires no comment, unless it be to repeat that, in the derivation of Turkish words only, it sometimes takes the place of $ت$, and is used instead of $b$ in original words also ;


The Arabic $\dot{j}$, in an Ottoman mouth, is a $z$. It is found in Arabic words alone. Different Arab communities pronounce it as our soft th in $t h i s$, as a $d$, or as a $z$. The Turk reads,


The Arabic , is our $r$ in every position, in all classes of words: thus, بَا بَأْرْ important remarks, however, which it is necessary for the English student to bear in mind with respect to this, to him, peculiar letter. Firstly, it must always be pronounced (never dropped or slurred over, as we pronounce part, pa't); and secoudly, the value of the vowel hefore it in the same syllable must never be corrupted (as when we pronounce pot, påt; for, fâr ; cur, cưr ; \&c.), but always kept pure, as with any



The Arabic ; is our $z$ in every word and every position;
品 ůz; \&c.

The Persian ${ }^{\prime}$ is only found in Persian and French words; it is of the value of our $s$ in treasure, pleasure, and is trans-
 madzhor, \&c. It is of very rare occurrence.

The Arabic $س$ is a soft $s$, always followed by a soft vowel in all words. It must never be pronounced as $z$; thus,

The Arabic ش is our sh, always; as, إِشْ lsh, نَشْرْ nèshr.
The Arabic $\boldsymbol{\sim}$, in Turkish, is a bard $s$, used in Turkish, and foreign words also, to designate a hard vowel ; thus, اصّ


The Arabic $\dot{\omega}$ is very peculiar, being used in Arabic words only. It is generally pronounced as a hard $z$ in Turkish, but

 \&c. Its Arabic sound is inimitable to a European without long practice.

The Arabic $b$, besides being an element of Arabic words, always as a hard $t$, is used in Turkish and foreign words, sometimes with that value, sometimes as a very hard $d$, when



The Arabic $b$ is used in Arabic words only, as a very hard
 مَكْظُوْ mâhzūz.

The Arabic $\mathcal{E}$ is, as a general rule, used in Arabic words only. It is a strong guttural convulsion in an Arab throat, softened in Turkish to a hiatus, and often disappearing entirely.
風 word always written with this letter, of course corruptly.

The Arabic $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ is, originally, a peculiar Arabian kind of hard $g$, with a sound vergeiug on that of the French r grasséyé, which English dandies sometimes imitate. But in Turkish pronunciation it is either a simple hard $g$, when initial; as,
 medial or final in Arabic words only, or like our softened $g h$ in Turkish words; often disappearing, or nearly so, and changing, like it, into a $w$ sound after or before an ưtârû

 صُوْوقْ

The Arabic $\omega$ is our $f$ in all words and all positions.

There is no reason whatever to write the senseless, false Latin-French $p h$ instead of $f$, as in caliph, a corruption of


The Arabic $ق$ is our $q$ in all words and all positions. It is erroneons and regrettable to represent it by $k$, as is generally
 rectly rendered, leaving the $k$ to represent its legitimate ancestor, ©.

The Arabic ©, in all words and all positions, is our $k$. When initial in a word or syllable before a long lor, vowel, and also before a short ưtủrủ vowel, it borrows, in an Ottoman mouth, the sound of a $y$ after itself before the vowel; but not so before the short ủstủn, the short tseder, or the long i vowel.
 kirām, addition; but in Persian and Turkish it has to be distinguished from the Persian letter of the same form, but widely
 carreblyye. In Arabic and Persian Ottomau words it remains unchangeable by grammatical inflexion; but in Turkish words, when final, it undergoes phonetic degradation on becoming movent, and is pronounced as a Persian $\leftrightarrow$, and even as a $y$; or sometimes as a $w$ after an ủtủrủ vowel.

 ttmekk,

Tho Persian © ك called kyāfl fārtslyyed, and
 Cod atm kat fl), is the Persian hard $g$. It is unknown in Arabic, is unchangeable in Persian words, and is never final in

 it is undistinguished from its Arabic original ; but the Persians



The Ottoman s, ignored by all previous writers, eastern and western, consequently nameless, but which we venture
 found in Turkish words only, as a medial or a final, never as an initial to a word, though it is used as an initial letter in a non-initial syllable. Its phonetic value is that of our $y$ in all cases, though it has no mark to distinguish it. It is both
 matical, declensional, servile, representing a softened Arabic radical or servile $\left(4\right.$, become movent, as in ${ }^{\circ}$



represent this value by $g h$; but the practice is insufficiently considered, and altogether misleading.

The Ottoman nasal $\uplus$, distinguished by the name of surd $n$, صَاغِرْ نُوْنْ sàghìr nūn, is a second special Tnrkish phonetic value of the letter © , or nasal letter, which we transliterate with the Spanish nasal ñ. It has the phonetic value of our English ng nasal, as in sing, thing, \&c. In ordinary writing and print, it has no mark by which a student may recognize it ; but sometimes three dots distinguish it, and one recent writer has marked it with one dot, © (as with him the three dots, © ${ }^{*}$, serve to point out the Persian letter or sound). This value is never initial to a word. As a medial, it sometimes ends,
 măq),
 it is usually sounded as a simple $n$; as, , سَنكّ , bè sầnłñ ( $(\operatorname{san} n \neq)$, ${ }^{\circ}$ When medially final it is usually softened in like manner, or is elided in pronnnciation. In ${ }^{\circ}$ derived from ${ }^{\circ}(\sqrt{4}$ añ ), the following $J$ is exceptionally incorporated with it in pronunciation, as though by a kind of inversion of the Arabic rule of conversion for the $J$ of the definite article $ل l l$ before certain letters called solar (for which see next paragraph on letter J).

The Arabic $J$ is our letter $l$ in all words and all positions;
 mentioned above, is, with its derivatives, a modern Ottoman exception of the capital; and the Arabic rule for the conversion of the $J$ of the definite article $J$, in pronunciation, when followed by a noun or pronoun beginning with a solar
 cated by a tèshdid, is a classical exception, peculiar to Arabic compounds. The solar letters are fourteen in number (exactly the half of the alphabet) ; viz., $\quad$,




 the written $J$ of the article disappears also. The sign ${ }^{\circ}$ placed over the $ل$, so omitted in pronunciation, is named vwâsl, junction; and is the letter $ص$ of that word, specially modified.

The Arabic letters ${ }^{\circ}$ and 0 are our $m$ and $n$ respectively, in all words and positions: مَآلْ māl,


The Arabic letter, is sometimes a consonant, sometimes a vowel. When a consonant, it has the phonetic value of our $v$, of our $w$, or of these two combined, the $v$ beginning, and the

 differences. But when the consonant $g$ is reduplicated in an Arabic word, it has always the $v$ value; as, قَوَّالْ $q^{2}$ abvâl. Ottoman corruption even then may sound it, in hard lettered words, as a reduplicated $w-\mathrm{q}^{2} \mathrm{a}^{2} w a \bar{l}$. The word
 0 or


When the letter $g$ is a vowel in an Arabic or Persian word, it always has the value of $\bar{u}$; excepting a few Persian words, become Ottoman vernaculars, in which it takes the sound of 3.
 خُوشْ khòsh (khūsh). In Turkish and foreign words it is generally, if not always, short, and may bave either the value of $\delta$, or of $\hat{u}, \hat{u}, \hat{u}$, which there is no means of distinguishing, save that of accompanying hard or soft consonants. With a hard ennsonant, in a Turkisll or foreign word, the vowel-letter g (often omitted) must have the sound of either $\delta$ or $\mathfrak{u}$, unless it be considered long, when it becomes $\bar{o}$ or $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$; thus,

 the accompanying consonant or consonants be uentral, all
 derivatives there is, however, frequently a servile vowel or


such helping derivative. As to the long and short value, each individual ear must decide for itself in words of these two classes--Turkish and foreign. Vowel , is never initial ; it



The Arabic letter o bas already been fully discussed.
The Arabic letter $\mathcal{\xi}$, like the $g$, is either a consouant or a vowel.

When a consonant, it has the value of our consonant $y$, whether it be iuitial, medial, or fiual, simple or reduplicated. Especially must this be understood when the letter is consonantally final in an Arabic word. As a consonant, and only as a cousonant, we transliterate it by a $y$. Therefore, when we use a $y$ as the final of a transliterated Arabic word, it must be read and sounded as such, never as an $i$ vowel ; an observation that continental scholars do not generally understand, unless they may be Germans. Thus we have: يُ yerr, يَك
 shéy, récy, قْ mèy,
 at first, as we have nothing like it in English.

When the $\mathcal{v}$ is a vowel, it is never initial. If a vowel $t$ or 1 sound be initial in any Ottoman word (Arabic, Persian, 'Turkish, or foreign), the $\varsigma \mathcal{N}$, if written, is always preceded by

 In Turkish and foreign words, medial vowel $\mathcal{v}$ is generally, if not always short; as, وِيرْمَنْ in an Arabic word, it is also always short ; as, رأٍ quaz rāzî, of Arabic words ending in reduplicated consonantal $\mathcal{N}$, which, in Persian and Turkish, are used as Arabic words, generally


 reduplicated nature of their final consonantal $s$ becomes


There are many Persian derivative words, adjectives or substantives (besides others not used in Turkish), which really end in long vowel s. The adjectives are precisely similar to the Arabic adjectives just described, as modified in Persian and Turkish; but they have no feminine. Thus,
 'of Shiraz;' \&c. The substantives indicate abstract qualities;
 tions;' \&c.

Turkish and foreign final $\mathcal{E}$, radical or servile, is always a



The vowels 1 and are sometimes interchangeable in Turkish words and derivations, and are sometimes omitted,

 is: "Never introduce a vowel letter into a Turkish or foreign word without removing a possible doubt as to pronunciation; never leave out a vowel in such word, if by the omission a doubt is created as to pronunciation." The orthography of Arabic and Persian words is fixed, and admits of no such variation. Persian words admit, however, of abbreviation by the omission of a vowel ; as, شَ شَاْ (vulg. pādlshāh),


In many Turkish words the vowels $g$ and $ى$ are used for one another by different writers, at different times, in different places; even at one place and time; even by one writer at different times, or in the selfsame document; but this last as a license or an iuadvertency. Consistency in this matter is

 the selfsame in reality.

The Ottoman alphabet is divided into three classes of consonants, hard, soft, and neutral. The hard letters are mine in


sixteen in the whole, are neutral : ب, ب, ب, (,

As the orthography of every Arabic and Persian Ottoman word is fixed and unchangeable, it is only in Turkish and foreign Ottoman words, and in the declensions and conjugations of all Ottoman words, that the rules relating to hard and soft letters are carried out. This is the first and chief part of the beantiful system of Ottoman euphony.

If any one of the hard or soft consonants is used in a Turkish Ottoman word, all the other radical and servile letters of the word, of its derivations, and of its declension or conjugation, must be of the same class, or of the neuters.



The Ottoman vowels are also of these three classes. The hard vowels are : $\bar{a}^{2}, \bar{a}, \overline{1}, \overline{1}, \bar{b}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}, \bar{u} ;$ eight in all. The soft
 are $\bar{a}, \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \hat{a}$. These vowels always accompany their own class of consonants, or the neutrals. The neutral vowels can accompany any class of consonant. Thus we have : búl bât, ひَ ănả,


When in a Turkish Ottoman word a vowel is the dominant letter, its consonant or consonauts being neutrals, the declen-
sion, conjugation, and derivation from that word follow the class to which the dominant vowel belongs ; thus, in âtmåq,



When an Arabic or Persian word is declined or derived from, in Ottoman Turkish, its last dominant letter or vowel decides whether the declension or derivation shall be made with hard or soft letters and vowels; thus, of mèrbūt, آَسَانْلْقُ āsānlịq; \&c.

When the sole dominant vowel of a Torkish Ottoman word, or the last dominant letter or vowel of a Turkish, Arabic, Persian, or foreign Ottoman word, is of the $o$ or $u$ class, hard or soft, all possible consonants, and all vowels in the declension, conjugation, or derivation therefrom, not only conform to the class of such dominant, but furthermore, all consecutive servile vowels in the derivatives that would otherwise be esere, become ut $^{3} \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{r}}$ 亿, of the class of the dominant; that is, become u when the dominant is $\delta$ or $\hat{\mathrm{u}}$, and become $\hat{\mathrm{u}}$ when the





gyửưshdảruảlmèk. But if, in such words, an ẳstân vowel come in by the ordinary course of derivation or conjugation, and be followed by a syllable or syllables with an esere vowel, the influence of the radical dominant ${ }^{3}$ tururn is destroyed




## CHAPTER II.

## The Ottoman Accidence or Etymology.

## Section I. The Noun Substantive.

There is no gender. If the female of an animal has not a


 a lioness ; \&c. If the female be a girl or woman, she is never

 (khizmètijl qiz), a servant maid, a maidservant ; قَارِ آَبْجْى (qâ̊r åshjí), or (âshjî qârî), a woman cook, a cook woman.

There is, really, no declension of nouns in Turkish; but the prepositions, perhaps eight in number, by some termed postpositions, are subjoined to the noun, singular or plural, the plural being always formed by adding the syllatle $\begin{aligned} & \circ \\ & j\end{aligned}$ (ảr, ler) to the singular; thus:

| Nom. | هq | (arrow), | ¢ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| en. |  | (of 一), |  |

#  <br>  <br>  <br> Abl. $\quad$ اُوقْـَن <br>  <br>  

Nom.

Gen.隹 èviñ,

竍
Dat. $\quad$ gl
أَوْلْرَ
Lo.

- أَوْ

أوْرُ
Acc. آَ elva,
Abl. $\quad$ أودْتْ
Cotelert.

Inst. أَوْكَ eve, évlêrlé.

Most Turkish singulars (not all) ending in est en this letter into $د$ before a junctional vowel preposition ; thus, ${ }^{\circ}$




Most, if not all, Turkish singulars, of more than one syllable, ending in $\bar{G}$, soften it into $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ before junctional







These rules do not apply to Arabic and Persian substantives; these retain their final 0 or unchanged; unless the borrowed word has passed into the mouth of the vulgar as an


Singulars ending in a vowel, take $\cup$ in the genitive, and consonant $\mathcal{v}$ in the dative and accusative, to support the







Singulars ending in vowel $\%$ do not join this letter to the


The word $ص$ (sdu), water, irrcgularly forms its genitive as صوُوْكَ (suyduñ, almost the only exception or irregularity in the language). صُورى (sby), sort, euds in a consonant, and is regular;


Arabic and Persian substantives never change their final

 worship, صُلَكِ (sâlatiti). Their final vowels follow the same

 chārsū), market, root, تُلَاكِثِيِى (sủlāsiyt).

They form their plurals as Turkish words; but Persian names of men and their kinds use the Persian plural also, if judged proper. This is formed by adding an åstủn vowel, followed by $\circ$, to the final consonant of the singular; as,
 vowel, it is changed into consonant $凶 4$ (Persian), with ủstůn vowel, before the ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ of the plural; as, خَواجَه (kh'ajje), master, خَوْاجَكَنْ (kh'ājegyān). Singulars ending in vowel و take consonant s instead of © ; as, خُوبْرُ (kbūb-rū), a beauty in face, (khūb-rūyān). Those ending in vowel change it into consonant $\mathcal{v}$ in like manner ; as, (sipāhī), man-atarms, saying: "The final long vowel is in reality two letters s rolled into one. One of these is now used as a consonant."] Other Persian substautives form the plural by adding the
 lorses.

Arabic plurals, of the regular forms for men and women, and of the various irregular forms for these and other things, and also the Arabic duals, are used in Turkish. The dual is formed by adding ưstủn followed by ${ }^{\circ}$ (ān) in the nominative, which becomes $\begin{array}{r}00 \\ 0\end{array}$ (eyn) in the oblique case. The latter is frequently used in Turkish as a nominative; as, ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ قُق (qủtb),


The regular plural masculine nominative for men is formed by adding ut $^{2}$ iru followed by ون وun) to the singular. This becomes èsêré followed by (in) in the oblique case, also used as a nominative in Turkish; the plural feminine is with

 lłmāt), Muslims.

The irregular Arabic plurals commonly used in Turkish are of rather numerous forms, and there are many more plural forms used occasionally. These irregular plural Arabic forms are not obtained by adding a letter or letters, vowel or consonant, to the end of the singular, but by varying the vowel or vowels of the word, and by adding letters, consonant or vowel, as the case may be, before, between, or after, the letters of the singular. To enable the student to obtain a fair insight into this very intricate but beautiful system, I have to say, first of all, that a paradigm has been adopted by Arabian grammariaus, according to which all such modi-
fications may be effected. They have taken the triliteral
 word, and they have modified this root into every shape that can, under any circumstances, be taken by any derivative of any triliteral root in the language. All those modifications, when not made on the vowels alone of the triliteral, are effected by adding servile letters, or a servilo letter, here and there, before, after, and in the midst of, the three radical consonants, with appropriate mutations, in each case, of the vowels, long or short, in the new word. Thus, to speak only of Arabic nouus, substantive or adjective, used in Turkish, we have, in the first place, to learn the forms of their singulars (for they all have definite forms), and then the forms of the plurals special to each of these singulars.

To facilitate and systematize this knowledge, the Arabian grammarians have divided the whole language into sections of biliteral, triliteral, quadriliteral, quinqueliteral, \&c., roots,

 are the Turkish pronunciations of the terms. I do not remember ever to have seen or heard the expression اُحَّدى (ưhādì), which would be the analogons name for unilitcral root ; but it may perhaps be found. Of these, the triliterals form by very far the most important and numerous class, the quadriliterals coming next. These are represented,
respectively, by the supposititious paradigmatic words فَعَ_َل


Every triliteral root is theoretically capable of giving rise to fifteen chapters of derivation, called بَابْ (bāb, pl. آْوَأَبْ èbvāb). These chapters are respectively termed : 1, 1 , فَ
 bābî), the chapter of (the verbal noun) مُقاعَلَّ بَبِى ; 3, تَغْعِلْ
 6, تَّفَعُلْ بَإِى (tèfā


 The use of words from the last four chapters is next to unknown in Turkish, if not quite so ; and the use of chapters
 colours, the second expressing an intensity of degree. All the other nine chapters of derivation are constantly met with in Turkish, as nouns, substantive and adjective. Occasionally, even a verb is used; but as a kind of invocatory interjection. All but the first of these names (which is the form of three out of the six varieties of its verb) is the form of one of the verbal uouns, or of the sole verbal noun, connected with the verb of the chapter; and each chapter has two adjectives
deriving from it, the active and passive participles of the verb of the chapter. The first, or triliteral, chapter possesses, furthermore, several other special forms of nouns deriving from its verb other than its verbal nouns (which are a kind of iufinitive, or noun of action or being, corresponding with our English substantive form in -ing, as, walking, singing, cutting, suffering, lasting, \&c., as acts or states). Of these, I give here merely those frequently met with in Turkish ; and it must be noderstood, that in this simple triliteral chapter, the various forms of verbal nouns are never all found deriving from one verb; but certain forms belong to one or more kinds of triliteral verbs, others to other kinds. These kinds of verbs, again, are of two sorts; there are verbs transitive or active, and there are verbs intransitive or neuter; and certain verbal nouns are more used than others with each of these two kinds. Again, there are the six conjugations of this simple triliteral chapter ; and each conjngation has its preferential form or forms of verbal noun. The Turkish Qämūs dictionary dilates on this subject more than other works, and much information can be obtained from it, in addition to what should be studied in the "Grammar of the Arabic Language," by Dr. Wm. Wright, vol. i., p. 109, par. 196, where 36 forms of "nomina verbi" are given for this triliteral chapter alone, and several others may be found in De Sacy's " Grammaire Arabe," 2nd edition, 1831, vol. i., p. 283, par. 628. Those that are principally


 with an insititious or servile long vowel 1: 9, 〕ْلْ (fáacall); 10, ${ }^{\text {O }}$





 forms in initial servile $p$, with their feminines: 25 ,
 with the two special forms in initial servile $ت$, with long
 original substantives and adjectives are of one or other of the forms here given; and in frequent cases it is disputed whether such words are substantives or verbal nouns. The active participle, nomen agentis, of this chapter is: 31, فَّ (fãّil); 32, feminine, فَــاعِـلَسه (fáqle); and the passive participle, nomen
 derivative adjectives are met with, branches of this chapter, as: 35 , ${ }^{\circ}$



 sometimes meffil and areio mef acte); the noun of the place of abundance: 44, alxeo (mefeale); the noun of instrument and receptacle: 45, mlféale ; rarely which need not be classified here, though a knowledge of their special forms and meanings, when acquired, assists greatly to an accurate appreciation of Arabic diction, as occasionally met with in Turkish.

The irregular plurals of these forms mostly met with, when










 and others more rarely used.

Adjectives masculine derived from this triliteral chapter, much used in Turkish, are of the two forms ${ }^{\circ}$ (fázil) and






We now come to the derived chapters.
The verbal nouns of the secoud chapter are: تْ تْ (tefficil),




 which the masculine is also used as a noun of time and place.
 and ${ }^{\circ}$ jurug (flal ; this latter only occasionally used) ; the active

 first verbal noun).




 (mâtefâål,




 no $p$. $p$.
 (můsteffall,
 no $p$. $p$.

As to the significations of these chapters, it may be shortly said that when the first is transitive, the second is causative or intensitive; and when the first is intransitive, the secondcausative still in the same sense, but not intensitive-is transitive. Sometimes the second has the sense, not of making (a thing) do or be (so or so), hut of making (it) out to be (so and so), of deeming, judging, pronouncing, or calling (it so and so) ; rarely, it unmakes also.

The third chapter denotes reciprocity of the action between
two, or among several or many agente, or an expected reciprocity when one agent only is shown. Thus, $a$ mutually writing letters (to one another), a writing in expectation of a reply; قِّ a mutually striving to kill one another, fighting. When the triliteral is expressive of a state, as حُسن ar (husn), a being beautiful or good, the third form expresses an action corresponding with that state in the agent; thus, (mưhāsènè), a doing good, and acting well, lindly to (the other).

The fourth form is causative, generally, but sometimes intransitive; thus, thing) ; اقْبَا (lqbāl), an advancing.

The fifth form has the sense of acquiring a state, sometimes by one's own act, sometimes through the act of another; as,
 times; as, تَتعــنَّمٌ (tả̉ảllưm), a becoming knowing in (a science, art, \&c.); i. e., a learning (it).

The sixth form has the idea of reciprocity, something like the third, but more decided, more certain in fact; thus, تُقَاتُلْ (tả̉ātảl), a mutually killing one another. Sometimes it has the
 ignorant. Sometimes, again, it expresses a repeated act; thus, تَتَاضًا (tảqāzả), a dunning, repeatedly demanding the fulfilment and discharge (of some incumbent act or debt).

The seventh and eighth forms, like the fifth, imply the acquisition of a state, either by one's own act, or as the result

 a (becoming) looking forward (for the occurrence of an event). Sometimes the eighth form is transitive in the sense of acquiring; thus, 'ím (1fttrās), an acquiring (game) by hunt-
 obtain (a favour) by (morally) feeling one's way (by touching, groping, requesting) ; a requesting.

The ninth and eleventh express two degrees of state as to colour, and sometimes as to defects; the eleventh denoting intensity of that state; thus, ${ }^{0}$, ness: ${ }^{\circ}$ crooked; crookedness; (1'rijāj), a being very crooked; anfractuosity.

The tenth usually expresses a trying to get (the act or state
 an explanation of (a matter). Sometimes it has, like the second, the sense of deeming or judging (a thing) to be (what
 son or thing) heavy, disagreeable, tedious. And sometimes it means an acquiring a state, expressed by the first form; thus, (1stlshfã), a becoming restored to health. And again, it
occasionally has the sense of the first form; as, اسْتُدّْادْ (tstidād), a being or becoming ready prepared; readiness (external or mental); mental capacity and quickness in acquiring dexterity or knowledge.

Quadriliteral roots have but four forms ; of which only two are perceptibly used in Turkish, the first and second. The first has two verbal nouns, figured paradigmatically by dillis

 a verbal noun of the first form, and ${ }^{\circ}$ (tésåltun) as an example of the second.

It would occupy too much space to detail here the modifications of these results arising in the case of roots where the second and third radicals are identical, or of those in which one, two, or all three of the radicals belong to the trio $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{s}$, out of which the long vowels, the letters of prolongation, spring. These details should be studied in Wright's, or in De Sacy's Arabic Grammar. But it is necessary to remark that these Arabic verbal nouns belong equally to the active and passive voice of their verbs; so that, as in English, the same word, ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$ Get-h for instance, will sometimes mean a conquering, at others a being conquered, just as our word conquest does. This last rule holds good with Persian verbal nouns, not much used in Turkish. It is not so, however, with Turkish verbal nouns, excepting, to a slight extent, with the
present, as in a må̉, mé; and this for the simple reason that every passive Turkish verb has its own special verbal nouns complete, present, past, and future.

Every Turkish, Persian, and Arabic substantive has its diminutive, the two latter seldom used in Ottoman phrases.

The Turkish diminutive substantive is formed usually by
 whatever origin, whether it end in a consonant or vowel.






 woman.

In words ending with $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\mathcal{U}}$ or $\stackrel{\circ}{\mathcal{G}}$ after a movent consonaut, it would form a cacophony to repeat these letters for the diminutive. The less important is therefore sacrificed to euphony, and omitted in the diminutive, a vowel letter usually



This form of the diminutive is sometimes modified into that of
 vowel of the $e^{\text {in }}$ the diminutive has now become an ustan, as the èsere has been passed on to the or $\boldsymbol{G}$, modified into Turkish © ( $y$ value) or $\dot{\varepsilon}$ (soft $g h$ value). Euphony requires it.

These diminutives are used as terms of endearment also, exactly as in German, and as our nursery vocabulary says, daddy, mammy, granny, aunty, doggy, horsey, \&c.; only, in Turkish, the method is of universal application, by all classes, not by children only.

The Persian diminutive always ends in $\underset{\sim}{\text { ( }}$ (chè); as,



The Arabic diminutive also makes its first vowel ủtưrư, and the next vowel ủstủn, followed by a quiescent consonantal $ى$, whatever may be the vowels or quiescences of the original
 (hasdyn); \&c.

The Persian and Arabic diminutive applies equally to substantives and adjectives. The Arabic rule has many modifications in details. But as these Persian and Arabic diminutives are taken into Ottoman use as original words, enough has been said on their subject for the present purpose.

## Section II. The Noun Adjective.

As a general rule, the adjective, in Turkish, is invariable, liaving no gender, number, case, or degrees of comparison; and this, whether the word be of Turkish, Arabic, or Persian origin. It always precedes the substantive qualified; as,
 great men; بِيُوكَ إِينَكْKْر (blyủk tnêklêr), big cows.

But the Persian form of phrase is also much used (especially in writing), by which an adjective of Persian or Arabic origin follows the substantive qualified; such adjective remaining in the singular after a Persian substantive plural, the substantive qualified alwaye taking an esere of subjection to join it to the



If, in this Persian construction, both words are Arabic, and the substantive is a feminine singular, or an irregular plural of any lind, the adjective must be put in the feminine singular,

 Sultans.

Persian adjectives have three degrees of comparison, more or less in use in Turkish composition. The comparative is formed by adding the syllable $\begin{gathered}\text { \% } \\ \text { (ter) }) \text { to the end of the posi- }\end{gathered}$
tive ; and the superlative, by adding the syllables تَرِّرِ (terinn); but these never qualify preceding substantives, being only used as substantive members of phrases, or to qualify a

 nejejat), the best means of salvation.

Arabic adjectives have but two degrees of comparison. Whatever the form of the positive, the comparative is of the
 as an exaggeration than as a degree of comparison, more as a substantive than an adjective. If followed by a substantive singular, it is a superlative with the sense of very, extremely,
 nejjat), a very good means of salvation. If the following substantive be in the plural, the adjective is a superlative, with
 nejatit, the best of the means of salvation.

If an adjective be used as a substantive, it admits the plural and the prepositions, as substantives; thus, إُولَرْ (lyûler),


Every Turkish adjective, besides its positive signification, betokens, on occasions, the comparative, the superlative, and an excess of the quality it expresses, which we explain by employing the adverb too before the word. Thus, بِّ بِّ (blyâk),
large, larger, largest, too large ; صنَّاْت (sijảq), hot, hotter, hottest, too hot ; مُوغُورَ (sdghuqq), cold, colder, coldest, too cold; \&c.

The Persian compound adjective, much used in Turkish, in the positive degree only, is of many kinds. Some are compounded of two substantives, one or both of which may be
 majestic as Jemshīd; آَفْـُ تَدْبِيرْ (ãsåf-tèdbīr), Asaph in counsel;
 déstgyāh), a very loom of justice (i. e., just); others of an
 light of foot, light-footed; or a substantive followed by an

 (hèm-āshyānè), of the same nest; (hem-jlns), of the same genus; (hèm-sbehrī), of the same town or country, a fellow-countryman; of a substantive followed by وَشْ (vésb), like; as, (pèrī-vèsh), fairy-like; of a substantive

 fäm), emerald-coloured; ;ílín (gèndủm-gyūn), wheat-coloured (i. e., dark-complexioned, brown); of a substantive followed by
 (shīrin-kyār), sweet-mannered; آَفِريْ


 (1stann), all names of special places; as, تَلَمْدَاْ (qdlem-dān), $a$ pen-case ; كُ كُ لَنزَارْ (gyủl-zār), a flower-garden, a flowery mead;

 imitative of the sound of repeated blows with axe of sword; the same, or two different substantives, with I placed between
 $\bar{a}-\mathrm{pa})$, from head to foot; or with $\bar{G}$ or $\dot{\dot{G}}$ in place of the 1 ; as,
 fron beginning to end; or with شَبَانْرُزْ in (shèbān-rūzz), night and day (which is unique), شَبَانَرُروز (shêbānde-rūz), meaning: a whole night and day, all night and all day, twenty-four hours, or several nights and days in one succession; or with some



 (ser-bed-můhr), with the head (or month of a bag, bottle, \&c.) sealed up; or with a substantive and compound adjective; as,

 whose head is lifted up to the very spheres; besides many other varieties; especially the two privatives in aud $\overline{\mathrm{G}}$ (nā), not; as, بَى آدبَ (bi-eddeb), without education or manners, unmannerly, impolite ; نَابِينًا (nā-bīnã), not seeing, sightless, blind.

Some Arabic expressions may be regarded as compound
 lord of the conjunction (i. e., the master of the age); وكّينَتْتْ (veli-nt'met), associate of benefits (i. e., a benefactor); expres-
 all of which imply possession ; as, ذُوْ ذُوَابَ (zū-zuñabe), possessed of a forelock or topknot, and ذُو ذُنابَه (zū-zủnābê), possessed of
 the possessor of the side (i. e., pleurisy) ; or in Persian construction; as, آهْ عرْضْ (ehbl-9irz), possessed of honour or virtue,
 who possess the chief seat (i. e., high dignitaries); or an adjective
 other than circumscribed (i. e., unlimited, undefined); or an Arabic verb in the aorist made negative with $\searrow$ (la), not; $a s$,
 untold, innumerable; لَايَّوت (la-yemūt), who dies not, immortal;


Arabic adjective followed by a definite article and substantive;



Every Turkish adjective is also an adverb; that is to say, that, without any modification of form, the Turkish adjective qualifies verbs as well as substantives; thus, $\stackrel{\circ}{=} T j_{j}^{j} j$ (gyzzell åt),
 gracefully. The same is the case with Persian adjectives, whether used in Turkish or in Persian phrases. Arabic adjectives, as Arabic substantives, require to be put in their own accusative case indefinite when used as adverbs; as, ${ }_{\text {log }}^{0}$. (fł'lả̉u), by act; خَسْنَ (hadsànản), beautifully. Arabic substantives are also sometimes used as Turkish adverbs by being put in their own genitive, indefinite or definite, as may be, and preceded by an Arabic preposition; as, عَن غَفْلْ (


 (ll-sẻbébin), for a reason; \&c.

As with substantives, so also every Turkish adjective has its diminutive, formed by the addition of the suffix ( $\mathrm{j} \dot{\mathrm{j}}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{a}$ ), -ish, to the word, whether this end in a consonant or vowel;




 (qưrujaz) dryish. A modification of this form, dictated by the
 by substituting a final ${ }_{*}^{\circ}$ or ${ }^{\circ}$ for the 8 , and suppressing those letters at the end of the radical word, as for substantives; thus, (blyảjek), largish. A further conformity with the sense of euphony, avoiding two أُوسْتُرْن vowels in succession, makes
 last being doubly eupbonic.

These diminutive adjectives, as in every language, often express in Turkish the reverse of diminution in the quality they represent, being in fact exaggeratives in sense, and meaning very, exceedingly, extremely, \&cc.; as, جَسُورجْهَ آَمَمْ دْرْ (jessūrjå Adâm dir), he is a bravish man (i. e., a very brave man).

## Section III. The Numerals.

Turkish, Arabic, and Persian numerals, cardinal and ordinal, are used in Ottoman. Arabic fractions are also used as far as one-tenth. In this sketch, however, the five sorts of Turkish numerals alone are explained. These are the cardinal, ordinal, distributive, fractional, and indefinite numbers.

The simple Turkish cardinal numbers are: بِّ (blr) one, إِيكى (lkt) two, اُوْى (hicb) three, (


 (y يُوز (y
 million, are also used; but they are not true numerals. They are names of aggregates, and require the numerals before
 milydn) one million ; and so on for higher numbers, ايكِى يُوكْ ,
 y $\delta \mathrm{n}$ ), \&c., are sometimes used.

The compound Turkish cardinal numerals are uniformly built up by putting the units after the tens up to 99 , and by placing the word ${ }^{\circ}$, before the simple or compound expression up to 199; then by adding the units from 2 to 9 before up to 999 ; next by using ${ }^{\text {en }}$, before these simples or compounds up to 1999 ; and finally, by again using the simples



sèkı $y^{f} \mathrm{f}$ q $q$ irq bèsh) one thousand eight hundred and forty-five, (belsh yủz âltmîsh sêkłz błñ yủz

 $3,792,356$. It will be noticed that no conjunction enters these combinations. When the foreign expression $\quad$, treasury word يُ يؤْ is not used, the native method of expressing multiples of يُ يُزبْـِيكْ is to state the simple or compound number of such multiple, and then to intercalate the word
 (yedł kèrre yủz biñ) seven times one hundred thousand, 700,000; (dưrt yưz elll lkł kerrè yảz błñ) 45,200,000.
\left. The Turkish interrogative cardinal numeral is ${\underset{e}{0}}_{\mathrm{e}_{\text {( }}(\mathrm{q}} \mathrm{d} \mathrm{ch}\right)$ how many?

The cardinal numerals are adjectives; but, like all adjectives, may be used as substantives, and declined. Evern the interrogative $\mathbb{C}^{\circ} \frac{1}{1}$ is used as a substantive when enquiring "what number?" or "what is it o'clock?" or "at what price?"
 dłdtñzz) " how many did you say ?" سَاعْتْ قَاجَه كَلْدْى (sãåt qẩchả
 (qåchả vèrlyobrsun) " at how much art thou selling (it, them)?"
 is it ?"

The Persian compound cardinals place the higher elements first, as in Turkish and English ; but the conjunction $g$ is in-
 (hézār ù dủwist ù shâst ù haft), a thousand, two hundred, and sixty-seven.

The Arabic compound cardinals take the conjunction, between each pair also ; bnt the lower elements stand first ; as,
 elf) the year one thousand two hundred and fifty-nine, expressed
 sênési).

The Turkish ordinal numbers are formed by adding an èseré to the last quiescent consonant of the cardinal, simple or compound, followed by the termination

 But, in the numbers that end in vowel $\mathfrak{v}$, this is suppressed
 (altinj1) sixth, يَدِّغّْي (yedinjl) seventh,




The Arabic aud Persian ordinals are frequently used, and may be found in the lexicons, \&c.

The Turkish distributive numbers are formed from the cardinals by making their last quiescent consonant movent with ustủn, and then adding a quiescent ; to the word; as,
 Their sense is expressed in English, which has no such numerals, by the words each and apiece; the foregoing examples will thus be rendered: one each, five apiece, thirty each, a hundred each, a thousand each. The cardinal ${ }_{0}^{\circ}, \mathrm{O}$ becomes $\begin{gathered}0 \text { درَر } \\ \text { (dủrder) four apiece. }\end{gathered}$

When the cardinal ends with a vowel, the syllable $\begin{gathered}\circ \\ \text { (shèr) }\end{gathered}$ is suffixed to form the distributive; as, إيكِشْ (1kisher) two



In the case of more than one hundred or thousand, it is the cardinal that designates their number that receives the distributive suffix ; as, إِيِيشَر يوزْ (lktshêr yaz) two hundred each, بَشَرْبِيكْ (bèsbèr blñ) five thousand apiece. And in compound numbers the distributive suffixes are added to the numbers of thousands, of hundreds, and of final units or tens, to indicate


 (yůz elllshèr), 150 each.

The Turkish fractional numbers are very simple. The number of the denominator in the locative, and followed by the number of the numerator is the form ; as, إِيكذه بِر (lklde blr) in two (parts), one ; i.e. $\frac{1}{2}$, the half; بْشْدَ إِبكى (bèshde lkt) in five, two; i.e. $\frac{2}{s}$, two-ffths. Sometimes one of the synonyms (pāy),
 numeral of the fraction; as, إيكى بَآيدَه بِرْنَى (thrt pāydả, blr pāy) in two parts, one part.

The Arabic fractional numbers are also used up to ten. Excepting the word نِفْفْ (nisf) a half, the half, they are all



 (sálsān) two-thirds; but for all the others a Turkish numerator
 khủms) two-ffiths, بَعْ تُسْعْ (bèsh tû̉s) five-ninths, \&c.

There are two special Turkish adjectives and one Turkish substantive to express half. One of the adjectives, (yarim), and the substantive, يَّرِى (yadri), signify the half (of one sole

 The other adjective, بُوخُوقْ (bủchuqq), is used after some whole
number, never alone ; as, بِر بوخْوقْ أَلْهَ (blr buchuq elma) an
 and a half.

When a complex fractional number consisting of an integer and a fraction other than one-half has to be expressed, the Turkish or Arabic fractions are used, the conjunction $;$ or the preposition
 fourth. When the Turkish fraction is used, the numeral ${ }^{\circ}$ in the genitive is also introduced before the fraction; as, five, and three-eighths of one.

The indefinite numerals are: هر (her) every; © هر بِرْ (hèr blr)


 a few, a little; بِرْ $\underset{\sim}{\circ}$ (błr chdq) a great many, a great quantity; \&c. Of these, ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ is always an adjective; the rest are adjectives and substautives.

There is a small series of Turkish numerals of a peculiar



 (branches, \&c.) ; أُوحْ (åchůzlů) with three (lambs, brancbes, \&e.); \&e.
'Tbe written digits are: $11, r 2, r 3, \leqslant 4, \circ 5,46, \vee 7, \sim 8$, 99,0 . With these, compound numbers are written as in English, from left to right; as, ro 25, 14. 160, r\&.9 3409, va..r.sy 78003046, \&c.

In dates, the thousand, and generally the hundreds; of the year of the Hijra are omitted, as also the dots of the letters;

 $z \overline{\mathrm{a}}$, sène 97 ) on the 21 st $Z \bar{i}$ - l -Qa'da, '97 ( $\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{F}$.$) .$



 always precedes the sign of the month; and the first day is
 as, ${ }^{10}$; all dots being omitted in these sbortened numeral dates. Not so, however, when the
 (1shbu Ulñ


Ueshhnjl penjssenblh gyûnẩ) This day of Thursday, the 15 th of the month of Muharrem, of the Hijra year 1299.

## Section IV. The Pronoun.

The Turkish personal pronoun has no distinction of gender :
 (يُز ( (ãalar, onlarr) they.
 They then have their own plurals: which cannot be expressed in English. These are even used as singulars, by the over-polite. The third person plural is used, in the same way, out of politeness, for the singular, as is practised in Italian ; but it has not its plural. The word كُنْدِى (kendl) self, is a kind of common pronoun, of all the persons, singular and plural. It is specialized by the possessives.

The personal pronouns, singular and plural, are declined in the same way as the nouns substantive, excepting that some of them have a special genitive,-all but those of the second person, singular and plural. These genitives are: ${ }^{\circ}$ (bentm)



of the prepositions ${ }^{\circ}$ be put in the genitive, all but the third person plural; as, آتَلَرْ إيلَه with them.

These genitives are used, when required, to emphasize and corroborate the possessive pronoun of the same number and person. They are never used alone, without their possessives to corroborate; thus, بَابًا (bảbåm) my father (not my mother, \&c.), بَتْمٌ بَابَا (bẻnłm båbåm) my father (not your father, or his fatber).

The possessive pronouns, too, have no distinction of gender, either on the English or French principle. They are ${ }^{\circ}$ (lm,

 lảríl), their.

These possessives are suffixed to the substantives they qualify, and form one word with them. That compound word is then declined like a simple substantive; thus, ${ }^{\circ}$ (evlm) my house, آوِيمِكْ (evimtñ) of my house, آوِيَه (evtme) to my house, أوِيْدْ (evtmde) in my house; \&c. (The v added here before the bare possessive, is thought by some to be needed in the case of a preceding consonant that does not join on in writing to its next letter in the same word. Others do not consider it necessary, and write : $:^{\circ}$ أَوِى , اَوِنْ , \&c.; but
when the compound, in declension, \&c., takes another vowel after it, it is more usual to add this preceding vowel also; as,
 (èviñlz) your house; \&c.

The vowel that precedes the bare possessive is an ésere, soft or hard, given grammatically to the final consonant of the qualified substantive, when it ends in a consonant. Thus,


 dominant, this essere becomes ưtưrư also; thus,




When the substantire ends with a vowel, the bare possessive is added to form a syllable with that vowel, whatever it may


 (sưrålerl) their flock. The example here given, with the possessive singular of the third person, shows clearly that when the substantive ends with a vowel, in lieu of $s$ after a cousonant.

If the final vowel of the substantive is $\circ$, it is never joined

 her aunt ; تيزرْمِز (tèyzèmiz) our aunt, تيزهز (tèyzêñz) your aunt,


When the final vowel is $\mathcal{G}$, the possessives of the first and second persons singular do not join ou to it in writing. In the third person singular, and in all the possessive plurals,


 (terzallerf) their tailor. There is no valid reason for this rule; custom alone has it so. Thus are formed: ${ }^{\circ}$ ~َ (kèndłm)

 (kè̉ndllèrl') theirselves.

A final $\overline{0}$, in a polysyllable, as in declension, changes into $\dot{\varepsilon}$ before the possessives, singular or plural, excepting that of the third person plural ; so also, an Arabic © changes into


 his or her fowl; قُرنَاغِبْز (qỏndghîmíz) our mansion,

reason of the exception is evident, - the final consonant takes no vowel before رَرى

These possessives equally qualify plural substantives, and follow the sign of the plural. Thus, آلوَ (evlerlm), my houses;




By a consideration of the examples above given with the possessives of the third persons, singular and plural, as attached to singular and plural substantives, two peculiaritics become evident, namely: 1 , the plural sign is not repeated for the possessive when the substantive is itself plural ; 2, consequently, the combination of a substantive and a possessive of the third person, when it has the plural syllable ${ }^{\circ} j$ between the two, lcaves it altogether doubtful whether this plural sign belongs to the substantive or to the possessive. Even if the
 is not the case,-it would have been impossible to decide whether قُونَاقْلِّى (qdnalqlåríl) was intended to betoken the sense of his or her mansions, ou the one hand, or their mansion, on the other. Add to this difficulty the third sense of their mansions, and the puzzle becomes still more complicated. In conversation, the doubt of the hearer may be removed, if necessary, by proper enquiries. But, in a written document,
intended to be understood by an absent reader, possibly after the death of the writer, a method was seen, especially by judges and legists, to be necessary for distinguishing between the tbree cases.

That distinction is effected, in writing, somewhat at the expense of plain grammar, as follows. To distinguish the single possessor of the plural possessions, the singular corroborative genitive of the personal pronoun is placed before the combination containing the plural sign ; thus, أَنْكْ قُونَاْقْرِّى (åňn̆ qdnả̉qlả̉rí) his or her mansions. To distinguish the plural joint possessors of a single possession, the genitive of the plural personal pronoun is prefixed, and grammar is violated by omitting the plural sign from the combination
 their mansion. In the third case, the sign of the plural is used in the corroborative and in the combination; thus,
 still be felt, and these distinctions are not always used.

The declension of the combination with the possessive of the third person, singular or plural, takes a special form, a ن being introduced before the prepositions, and the final vowelletter of the original combination suppressed before this $u$, when the latter is joined in writing to the combination singular, or does not itself possess a vowel in the combination
plural. This rule, applied to possessives joined to substantives ending respectively in consonants or vowels, acts thus:





When كَنْـنـى is an adjective, it remains nnchanged, and



## Section V. The Demonstratives.


 other. They are used as substantives and as adjectives; being declined or invariable, accordingly, like other substantives and



As substantives, بُ and are thos declined, something like





 lẳriñ̃), شُوْنَ



But أُوبِر , to be used as a substantive, must have the possessive suffix of the third person appended to it ; أورِبرى ( 3 -bhrl) its other one, the other one (of the two). It is then declined

 Or it may take either of the two possessive suffixes of the first


 of you ; \&c.

Section VI. The Interrogatives.
0 , (ktm) who? is always a substantive, and declined as such, singular and plural: © كِ of whom? whose? to whom?
 who, what or which persons? \&c.

نَ (né) what ? is generally a substantive, and declined; but it is also used as an adjective, and is then invariable : نَ


 (things); \&c.
 adjective,-Declined or invariable accordingly.

These three words, as substantives, take the possessive suffixes. Tbus, كِيمِ (klmim) my who? نَمْمْ (nèm) my what ?
 its which, which (one) of it ? ${ }^{\circ}$. كـ, (klmlertm) my what per-

 (qångilert) which (one, or, which ones) of them?


Section VII. The Relative Pronoun.
There is no relative pronoun in Turkish, though attempts are made to use the Persian relative and conjunction, d (ki), as such, in literary composition. The Turkish conjunction a_S is a very different thing. Its use by Europeans
peans and others, as a relative pronoun, is greatly to be avoided. This avoidance of all use of the relative pronoun is the prime distinction of Turkish from all Aryan and Semitic tongues. It is the perfection of language.

The numerous active and passive participles of the Turkish verb obviate the necessity of a relative. The active participles take the place of our relative when it is nominative to a verb; and the passive participles do so when our relative is the accusative, or any indirect object of a verb. (See this explained in the paragraphs on the Participles, in Section VIII., on the Verb.)

There is a peculiar Turkish relative, however, to which we bave no parallel in English,-the suffix S $_{\text {(kt) }}$. It is attached to nouns and pronouns substantive in two ways. If the substantive be in the genitive, the combination is a substantive, and indicates that which belongs to (the substantive); thus,


 father, his father's one; \&c. If the substantive be in the locative case, the combination is sometimes a substantive, sometimes an adjective. The substantive combination then indicates that which exists in (the simple substantive); the adjective combination expresses the (substantive) which exists
in (the first substantive). Thus, بَبَبَمدْ thing, the one that exists, that is in (the possession or keeping of) my father, which my father has or holds; بَبَاسِنْدَكِى عِلْ (bábâaindebl 'lllm) the science possessed by his father, that is in his father. The substantive combinations form the plural, and are declined ; the adjective combination is invariable.
With a noun of place or of time the same particle, ك, forms a relative combination, substantive or adjective, having relation to the place or time named. In the case of the noun of place, the locative preposition may also be employed. Thus, أَشَافِى
 will be (present) in the evening.

Section VIII. The Derivation of the Verb.
As a general rule, each primary Turkish verb forms, itself included, a system of twelve affirmative, twelve negative, and twelve impotential verbs, by regular derivation ;-thirty-six in all; one half being verbs active, the other half verbs passive; the active verbs being transitive or intransitive; the passives having for their nominative the direct or the indirect object of the transitive, the indirect object only of the intrausitive primitive.

In another mode of subdivision, on the other hand, these
thirty-six verbs divide into two equal classes, in pairs, one of each pair being simple, and the other causative (which is also permissive, as the sense may show).

Each simple and causative pair of verbs is either determinate, indeterminate, or reciprocal; so that, by a special division of the same thirty-six, there are twelve determinate, twelve indeterminate, and twelve reciprocal verbs; thus (giving the imperatives of each, for economy of space) :-

|  | CLASSES. | A $\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{I}$ IVE. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | TRANS. OR INTRANS. | TRANS. OR INTRANS. | INTRANSITIVE. |
|  |  | Determinate. | Indeterminate. | Reciprocal. |
|  |  |  | نَ~ (tèpłn) kick about, dance (in pain, with joy, \&c.). |  |
|  |  |  | make (him) liock about. | (teptshdtr) make (them) Rick mutually one another. |
| $\stackrel{y}{3}$ |  |  | (tepinma) <br> kick not about. |  <br> kick not mutually one another. |
| 䛼 |  |  make or let not (him) be kickied; ...kick. | (teplndlrmax) | doر (têpłshdłrmả) make (them) not kick one another mutually. |
| $\stackrel{4}{4}$ |  |  | asoun (teptreme) be unable to kick about. | "تَتَشَهُ (teptsheme) be unable to kick one another mutually. |
|  |  | (tepdreme <br> be unable to make (him) <br> be licked ; ...kick. | doo, $\sin \overline{\sin }$ (tepłndtreme) <br> be unable to malie (him) kick about. |  be unable to make (them) kick one another mutually. |


| CLASSES． |  | PASSIVE． |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | INTRANSITIVE． |  |  |
|  |  | Determinate． | Indetermina | Reciprocal． |
| 空 |  | be kicked，be kicked in，\＆c． | تَتَنِلْ (têpłnll) <br> be kicked about in，\＆c． |  |
|  |  | تَّدرِل（tepdlril） <br> be made to be kicke |  <br> be made to be kicked about in． |  |
| 国 | $\text { Simple } \quad\{$ | A． be not kicked． |  <br> be not kicked about in． | be not mutually licked in． |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { y } \\ \text { 学 } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Causative } \\ \text { (Permissive) } \end{gathered}$ | （tepdłrêlmả̉） be not made to be kicked． | don <br> be not made to be kicked about in． | تَشْشِرِلْمَه（tèplshdłrllmả） be not made to mutually kick one another． |
| $\underset{\substack{k}}{\substack{k}}$ | Simple | تَبِّهُهُ（teptlème） be unable to be kicked． |  be unable to be kicked about in． | （tépłshłlème） be unable to be mutually kicked in． |
|  | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { Causative } \\ \text { (Permissive) } \end{array}\right\}$ | （tepdirtlemè） be unable to be made to be kicked． |  <br> be unable to be marle to be kicked about in． |  <br> be unable to be made to mutually kick one another． |

Remarks on the foregoing T'able.

The imperative singnlar is the root, or simplest form in the conjugation, primitive or derivative, of the Turkish verb. This conjugation-unique for all the thirty-six forms, as will be seen further on-consists in adding certain vowels and consonants to the end of this conjugational root.

When the conjugational root of the simple affirmative form ends in $J$, or in a vowel, it forms its passive by adding

 covered; ;ُوُوقُ (dqu) reat, (dqư) be read. In the foregoing case of the vowel-ending, the passive sometimes takes both the $\mathcal{U}$


When the root of the simple affirmative has more than one syllable, and ends in $J$, , or a vowel, its causative is formed
 (qisål) become shorter, قصصَأْت (q1:alt) make or let (it) become

 (sủwלylåt) make or let (him) speak or say, make or let (it) be spoken or said (by him); وُؤُؤو (bqu) read, recite, اُوقُوتُ (dqut) make or let (it) be read or recited (by him), make (him) read.

Many simple affirmative verbs ending in consonants also form their causatives in $;$, preceded by a servile eseeré, some-
 rule appears to exist on this subject, and the dictionary alone, or experience, can help the student in it. Thus, ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ (tch) drink (it), ${ }^{\circ}$, ! (lehlr) or ${ }^{\circ}$ ! (by him); بَابْ (băt) sink (thou), بَاتْ (bâtír) make or let (it) sink,
 flee or escape.

When the simple verb, affirmative, negative, or impotential, is transitive, its causative governs the same accusative; and the nominative to the simple then becomes a dative to the causative. Thus, بَسْ آَنِ يَاْزْ
 written by me (thou causedst to me the writing it), thou madest or lettest me write it.

When the simple verb is neuter, its nominative becomes the accusative of its causative ; as, اُويُودٌّ (号yudum) I slept, (sån bènł ưyưtdưn) thou madest or lettest me sleep.

An indefinite series of causatives of every verb may be formed by repeating the causative suffixes, $\stackrel{\circ}{-}$ after ${ }^{\circ}$, and 0 , after $\stackrel{\circ}{ت}$. They are sometimes useful, but are generally used in irony ; each augment adds an agent to the chain; as, يَازَمْقْ,
 thing) to be caused (by a second) to be caused (by a third) to be written (by a fourth agent).

The indeterminate is also called the Reflexive form. It has two uses. More generally it has the same intransitive signification with the simple form, as to the action, but betokens that this action is then performed without any determinate exterior object. Thus تَتِنْْمْ in is, to kick one's feet or heels about as one lies or stands (like a dancer, a man in a passion, a dying animal, \&c.); بَقِنْْمٌ (bảqqumảq) is, to look about, here and there, in a perplexed or inquisitive manner; \&c. But, at other times, this form is transitive, and then indicates that the agent is either the direct or indirect object, also, of the action,--that the act is done to or for the agent's self. Thus, (qilij qushẳnmẩq) to gird a sword on to one's self;

 (glyłumedk) to put on one's clothes,
 put on my boots; \&c.

Passive verbs of neuters are defective; they are conjugated in the third person singular only, and in inflexions over which person and number exercise no influence. They signify, to be such that the neutral action takes place in, to, for, by, on account
of, \&c. (as expressed), something named, as the act of some or

 tépłullmảz) the act of kicking about is not allowed here; \&c. We have such passive verbs in English; as, to be slept in, to be fought for ; \& c .

The Turkish passive verb always has, inherent in it, the
 it will be cut (then), it is cuttable (always); ينْ (yenmảz) it is not eaten (as a rule), it will not be eaten (then), it is not eatable (either now, or by nature).

SECTIon IX. The Turkish Conjugation.
All Turkish affirmative verbs, active or passive, transitive or intransitive, are conjugated in one and the same invariable manner, modified, as to their servile vowels and consonants, by the laws of class and euphony alone. The negative and impotential verbs differ from the affirmative, as to conjugation, merely in the form of the aorist active participle, and of the analogous aorist tense indicative. So that only one sole conjugation exists, in reality, in the Turkish language.

The conjugation consists of one simple and three complex categories of moods, tenses, numbers, persons, participles, verbal nouns, and gerunds; all four categories, simple and
complex, being fundamentally alike, but each modified in a certain special manner, to express a modified variation of the action.

Each category has six moods: the imperative, indicative, necessitative, optative (also suhjunctive), conditional, and infinitive.

The imperative mood has one tense, the future.
The indicative has eight tenses, in four pairs ; the present and imperfect; the aorist and past; the perfect and pluperfect; the future and past future.

The necessitative, optative, and conditional, have one pair eacb, the aorist and past. The infinitive has but one tense, the present.

Each category has five active participles; the present (which is the general active participle, applicable, in one sense, to any time, past, present, or future), the aorist, the past, the perfect, and the future. In Turkish, the present or active, the perfect or passive, are not confused together as in European languages; each is distinct in form and in sense, and is different from the gernnd in form, as it is, in grammar and in sense, different from the verbal noun.

The active participles of the passive verbs denote the direct recipients of the action of verbs transitive; the passive participles of the same apply to the indirect objects thereof. The active participles of the passives of intransitives denote the
indirect objects of the intransitive action; the passive participles of such passives are not in use.

Between the five active and two passive participles of each category, a Turkish conjugation thus furnishes twenty-eight participles for every verb, primitive or derivative. By the use of these numerous participles, it entirely avoids all necessity for a relative pronoun.

The present active participle adds an ûstủn and the letters , or only the letter ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$, to the root that ends in a consonant; the aorist adds a vowel and the letters ${ }^{\circ} \rho$, or only the letter ${ }^{\circ}$,
 with an esedel, for which no rule can be given ; the past adds (mish, mish) to all roots, whatever their ending ; as the perfect adds دِّكّ (dik) or دِّ (di̊q). The future adds an ưstůn




 are those of the simple affirmative derivatives. The causatives
 it into ${ }^{\circ}$ before the letters انَّ


(tepemeyejek), the final of the negative particle as being elided as useless.

When the root ends with a vowel, as is the case with all the negatives and impotentials, the syllable يأن (yån, yån) is added in the present participle, the final 8 or $s$ of the root being suppressed, and by some even the 1 ; but the, is kept



The Turkish present active participle, in colloquial language, as a remanet from eastern Turkish, takes after it the preposition $\delta^{\prime} \mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{d}} \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{d} \not{ }_{2}$, to form an adverb of past or future time;


The aorist active participle, of the same form as the third person singular of the aorist tense of the indicative, always ends in a letter, in affirmatives, and in the syllable (måz)
 تَّهِّمٌ (tépèmèz).

In the simple affirmatire, the vowel added to the last cousonant of the root, to whieh the final ; is then appended, cannot be defined by rule. Of course, it must be hard or soft according to the dominant in the root; but different verbs have ủstủn, others èsère, others again ưtửư, for their vowel; and with the ristủn, all hard verbs add 1 , as do some soft verbs; while other soft verbs dispense with this letter. Thus



The simple reflexive forms its aorist in ưtưrử and ${ }^{\circ}$ (generally pronounced as èsêrè and $\left.{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{\jmath}\right)$. The simple reciprocal does
 تَشْشُورْ (teplshưr, vulg. têplshłr). All the simple and causative


 be observed that a vowel $ی$ is intercalated before the $J$ in these words. This is a mechanical rule. The preceding, is a letter that does not join ou to its follower; this is the sole reason for the addition of that $ى$, when the following $J$ has a vowel. The same rule is applied by many to the , of the causative $\underset{\sim}{0}$, in like cases; that is, when it has its vowel, as it always has in the aorist. The words above given may
 no effect on the pronunciation.

The aorist passive participle has the same form as the active perfect, and the future passive is identical in form with the future active: تَتِّرِ

There are three verbal nouns; the present or general, formed by adding do (mé, mả) to the root, exactly like the negative imperative; the perfect, identical in form with the
perfect active and aorist passive participles ; and the future, identical with the two future participles. Thus, تَّ تَ (tedpme );
 present verbal noun is also that of a verhal adjective passive, siguifying done, made, effected as the result of (the action of the verb); thus, kick or kicks.

This derivative of the transitive verb active simple and causative can also take the passive sense; thus, which naturally means an act of cutting, often means also an act of being cut; as, كَمْمِى قُولَانی (kesmest qblay) it is easily cut. It is also much used as a passive adjective when the
 cut tobacco; and as an active adjective when the verb is in-
 remaining from (one's) father.

Leaving the gerunds for the present, we may now inquire into the mode of formation of the tenses of each mood. But before doing so, we must indicate the differences that serve clearly to distinguish the active participles, the passive par-



In the first place, the participles are adjectives, while the verbal nouns are substantives. Therefore, whenever a deriva-
tive iu either of those forms qualifies a substantive, it must be a participle; it cannot be a verbal noun.

Secondly, the active participle qualifies the name of its actor only. It is therefore always a simple and invariable

 he who is to go?

Thirdly, the passive participle always qualifies the name of the direct object, or of the indirect object, of the action, and is always accompanied by a possessive pronoun indicating the actor of that action. The first of these two facts distinguishes the passive participle from the verbal noun; the second distinguishes it from the active participle of the same form.

 book which I am going to read. These are instances of the

 (kttåbi dquyajadghim mèjlis) the meeting in which $I$ am going to read the book, are instances of indirect objects; as is also 'وُويويُجْغْمْ اُوطَه to sleep.

As instances of the substantival nature of the verbal nouns,

mů) have you seen my past action of writing writing? i. e., have
 sưwèyled l) who mentioned my future action of coming? i. e., who told (you, him, \&c.) that I was about to come?

Proceed we now to discuss the formation of the tenses.
The third person singular is the root of each tense, except in the imperative. Leaving the numbers and persons for future consideration, we may say, in the first place, that, as the second tense in each pair, of every mood (excluding the imperative and the infinitive), is formed from the first tense of the pair by the addition of the auxiliary إيدى , (idi) was, after it, we may leave these second tenses also for future con sideration.

By these means we arrive at the conclusion that there are four tenses in the indicative, and one each in the necessitative, optative, conditional, and infinitive, the forms of which have to be defined.

The four indicative tenses are-the present, the aorist (present habitual and future promissive), the perfect, and the future; the single tense of the other three moods is their aorist (present or future); and that of the infinitive is its present.

The present indicative adds an éséré and the syllable يُورْ (ydr) to the consonantal root; thus, تَتِيْور (têptydr). It indi-
cates a present action (actual or habitual) ; he is kicking (now); he now habitually kicks. Add the auxiliary إيدى to this, تَتَيورْإِيِى (teplydr łdł), and it forms the imperfect, he was kicking (then). A final $\because$ more frequently changes to $د$; as, (

The aorist indicative varies in form of the servile syllable, but always ends in ${ }^{\circ}$, in the affirmatives, and in ${ }_{j 0}^{0}$ (medz, mảz) in the negatives and impotentials, being identical with the active aorist participle. It indicates a present habit (not a present action), or a future assurance, a future promise, as the context or circumstances may require. Thas, تَّر (teper) he kicks ; he shall or will kick; قَیِرْ (qirdr) he breaks ; he shall or
 he reads; he will read; ${ }^{\circ}$, إِرِ (isinir) he bites; he will bite;
 he cannot kick. The auxiliary إيدى, added to this, forms the past tense (showing a past habit, or an unfulfilled condition);
 he would have kicked (had he been able); in which two last senses, the expression is a virtual negative : he kicks not, because he is not able; he did not kick, because he was not able; تَتْ (tepmảz łdli) he used not to kick; he would not kick (if he could); he would not have kicked (had he been able); (tèpèmez ldi) he used not to be able to hick; he would
not be able to kick (if so and so); he would not have been able to kick (had not so and so); \&c.
The perfect indicative is formed by adding the syllable ( d , d f ), in all cases, to the root. It is used in a determinate, and also in an indeterminate past sense, referring the action to a given past time, or to all past time. Thus, تَ تَبْى (tèpdi) he kicked (then); he has kicked (without defining when). Add

 kickied; تَيَمْدِى إِيدى he had not been able to kick.

The future indicative is identical in form with the active and passive future participles, and with the future verbal noun. It indicates that the action expressed by the conjugational root is about to take place; thus, تَّهَجْك he is about to kick, he is going to kiek; تَتْمَيْجَكْ he is not going to kick; إيدِى he will not be able to kick. Add the auxiliary, and the past future results تَّهُجْكُ إِيْى he was going to kick,
 unable to be about to kick. Final $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ iu the root generally changes to $د$, and a final vowel requires the addition of a consonant ي

The aorist necessitative is formed by adding the syllables (mell, málif) to the root. It indicates a present duty to perform a future act; and corresponds with our must or ought.

Thus, kick, he ought not to kick; ; تَّيَمَامَلْ he ought not to be able to kick. With the auxiliary إِـدى, we have the past neeessitative, تَتْمْكَ , إيـدِى he ought to have kicked, he should have kicked; He ought not to have kicked; تَتَّامَكِلو , إِيدى he ought not to have been able to kick.

The aorist optative is formed by adding an unstỉn and vowel \% to a consonantal root, or a syllable ي́ ( $\mathrm{y} \ell, \mathrm{yå}$ ) to a vowel root. Sometimes $\mid$ is used in place of $\gamma$. The tense is a quasi-imperative, implying optation, or it is a subjunctive. Thus,
 him not kick, may he not kick; (that) he may not kick; تَيَمْيَ (têpèmèyè) may he not be able to kick; (that) he may not be able to kick. Add now the auxiliary past tense, a virtual negative, expressive of regret; thus, تَهَ إِيدىى (têpe łdf, more frequently written and pronounced تَتِدْیى tepeydi) had he kicked, if he had kicked; O that he had kicked; تَبْهُ يَيْدِى (tepmêyeyd) had he not kicked, if he had not
 he not been able to kick, if he had not been able to kick; O that he had not been able to kick.
The aorist conditional is formed by adding the syllable سَ (sè, så) to any root, consonantal or vowel. This performs the
function of our conjunction if, in appearance; but, as أَكِ (eyer), if, can be placed before it, it really is a subjunctive tense-ending. As a present, it admits the possibility of the action; as a future, it virtually denies the occurrence. Thus,
 of negation elided) if he kick not, were he not to kick; تَيَهمسَه (tépémése) should he not be able to kick. Sometimes it is desiderative, 0 that he kick! \&c. With إِيدى added, we have the past conditional, which is always a virtual negative.

 (telpemeseydil) had he not been able to kick.
The present of the infinitive is formed by adding مَكْ (mek)
 (qầplamăq) to cover. The negative aud impoteutial are frequently written with 1 , and sometimes without a vowel-letter



 (gltmek qålmåqdân evva) going is better than staying. It also takes the suffix verbal noun in -ing; as, ${ }^{\circ}$.

There are seven gerunds, one gerund-like verbal locution of
cause, one of verbal proportion, and six to indicate various times in relation with the action. All of these gerunds and gerund-like locutions presuppose the occurrence of two actions expressed in the sentence, one by the gerund, the other by a subsequent verb. The gerunds are a kind of verbal conjunctions, while the gerund-like locutions are verbal adverbs.

The first gerund, the most frequently used, ends in an
 (yubb, yâb) after a vowel. It indicates that two actions are being mentioned, of which the one implied by the gerund is prior as to time or natural sequence. We more usually, in English, express this relation of two actions by the conjuuction and, though we occasionally use our gerund in -ing,
 and breaks, will kick and break (it); or, kicking (it), he will break (it). Conversationally, this gerund is pronounced with éséré in lieu of ủtůrå ; and with $p$ in place of $ب \div$; as, téptp, qirip, \&c.

The second gerund is formed by adding ûstun, and the
 or يْرقَ (yararaq) to a vowel-root. It is sometimes used in lieu of the first gerund, to obviate its too frequent recurrence; but its distinctive use is to indicate that, of two contemporary sustained actions expressed, the one, subsidiary, accompanies the other. Thus, تَمْرَّ كَكْدِى kicking, he went off; i. e., he
went off, kicking away (all the time); < laughing (all the time).

The third gerund, in (yłnje, yiuja) after a vowel, and the fourth (used in writing only, and much more rarely), in يَكَك (ijek) or يَنْ (ijảqq) after
 seuse that its action is to be a kind of signal for the occurrence of the other expressed in the sentence ; it may, then, be rendered by our on ... (with a gerund), also by our as soon as ... (with a verb). Thus, كُرُبْهَ تَبْدِى (gyủrưnje tepdt) on seeing
 lūm bla) on reaching (as soon as it reaches), be (it) known (that......).

The fifth gerund is identical in form with the aorist optative, repeated. It expresses repetition of one act as a means to the performance of a second. Thus, تَهَ تَهَ قِيرِدْى (teßpe tepe $q^{\text {ird }} \mathrm{f}$ ), kicking, (and) kicking (it), he broke (it).

The sixth gerund is the infiuitive with esere and ${ }^{\circ}$ يט added; the Persian softened into Turkish (b) value), and the into $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$. It expresses the verbal reason precedent for the second action. Thus, أُ تَهْـَكِينْ بَنْ قَاحْدِّمْ he kicking, I fed; i. e., because he kicked, I fed.

The seventh gerund expresses the beginning of a time commencing with the occurrence of an actiou and lasting until
now, during which another action has repeatedly or continuously occurred; it is equivalent to our ever since ..... In form it is the fifth gerund (not repeated) with the syllable
 ever since he licked, he has limped.

The causal gerund-like locution is equivalent to the sixth geruud in sense. It is the infinitive, with its final consonant softened down, and with the preposition إِيله ( $112,11 \mathrm{il}$ ) added,
 ing. No agent of the verb is then expressed in the verb, though it be so exteriorly; as, بَن تَتْـَكْنَّ by my kicking, I kicking, There is another form into which this idea is cast, and in which a perfect verbal norn, with a suffixed possessive pronoun indicative of the agent, and the ablative preposition
 (past) act of kicking. This pronoun varies as is required:


The gerund-like locution of verbal, i.e., of actional proportion is formed of the perfect active participle, with the adverbial suffix of manner, جَ ( $\mathrm{j} \ell$, $\mathrm{jax}^{\mathrm{a}}$ ), added to it. It defines a duration of time for two concurrent actions, the first circumscribing that duration for the continued or repeated occurrence
 I kick, so long as I kick, do thou hold (him). It sometimes
expresses the rate (proportion) of rapidity of the two actions;
 by, it grows large (larger).

The six verbal times indicated, in reference to an action, are the following: 1 , the time before the action; 2 , the time when the action is just about to occur ; 3, the time while the action occurs ; 4, the time when it occurred ; 5, the time just when it has occurred; 6, the time after its occurrence. The first is the present verbal noun in the ablative; as, تَبْمهدَن (tepp. mêdén), to which, for precision's sake, the adverb أَوَّ (ẫvall) or ${ }^{\text {on }}$ مقَّ
 the action of kicking; i. e., before kicking. Sometimes this is vulgarly expressed as before (the agent) kicks not; i. e., while (as yet) he has (or had) not kicked.

The second gerund-like locution of time is the future active participle with the auxiliary gerund ${ }^{\circ}$ ! (1ken), during, added to it ; thus, تَحَهجَكْ إِيكَن during (the time of being) about to kick; i. e, when just about to kick.

The third is the aorist active participle with the same addition: تَتْرَإيكَنَ during (the time of being) kicking; i. e., while kicking.

The fourth is the perfect verbal noun or active participle, put in tho locative (of time). It may be used impersonally,
with no addition in it ; and it may be used, for precision, with the possessive pronoun of the agent between the verbal noun and the preposition. In the former case, the verbal derivative is possibly a participle; in the latter, it is doubtlessly the verbal noun. Thus, بَنْ تَهَدْكْدْ when I (became) one who has kicked; or بَن تَبْدِيكهدْ when $I$ (performed) my (past) act of kicking; i. e., when I kicked.

The fifth is the past active participle with the auxiliary
 having kicked; i.e., now that kicking has occurred, since ( $I, \& \mathrm{c}$. ) have kicked.

The sixth is the perfect verbal noun in the ablative (of time), followed by the adverb صُكْر (sdñ̃râ, sobrâ), after; thus, (tepdlkdan soras̊) after the act of kicking. The possessive pronouns may be introduced into this locution before
 ny action of kicking.

## Section X. The Numbers and Persons of the Verb.

In all the tenses the first person singular is expressed by the personal suffix ${ }^{\circ}$ added to the verb, with esedre given to the tense-root, when this is a consonant ; and suppressing the final $ى$ of the tense-root where it occurs; adding one where wanted.





 (tèpejekdlm) I was going to kick ; تَهْجَـَـْمِمْ $I$ must kick ; تَـْهَوْوُ إِيربم (tepmell-ldtm) I should have kicked, ought to have kicked; ${ }^{\circ}$ (tepesm) that I may lieick;

 (tèpsèydm) if I had kicked.

The second person singular, in all the tenses in formed by changing the vowel $\underset{\sim}{ }$ into the nasal Turkish ${ }^{\circ}$;


 (slñ), sometimes written and pronounced (siñ), excepting the present of the conditional, which forms it with سْ سْ (Eàñ,




The first person plural, likewise, in all the tenses in
formed by changing the vowel $ى$ into Arabic ( $k$ value); excepting that of the perfect, which, in hard words, always

 تَتَهُجَيمِكْ


 son in the past future indicative, in the past optative, and in the past conditional, is used in the contracted form, these also, with hard words, use قَ instead of ©
 and present optative, it is formed by adding ûstån and the consonantal root, the syllable having esede for its vowel; or, in vowel-roots, by adding the two syllables يَلِّ (yellm,

 present of the conditional forms this person with 0 also; as,
 (اُوقُوسَقْ (). The present, aorist, and future indicative, with the present necessitative, form it in $j$ or ${ }^{\circ}$, with esêré added to the final consonant of the tense-root of the indicatives, and with that vowel given to the k of the necessitative;

 llytz). In hard words, the future indicative is in $\dot{\mathcal{E}}$ (softened


The second person plural, again, in all the tenses in 3 , is formed in (dlñłz; which is hard in the perfect of hard



 has two forms, in $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\circlearrowleft}$ and in ${ }^{\circ}$, both preceded by eserel, and a


 the other tenses form it in (siñtz, siniñz), except the present conditional, which has ưstản for its first vowel, often






The third person plural is formed from the same person of

 تَتَهْجَكْرَ (têpsélèr). The tenses in إيدىى may be formed in ihis way, إِيدى becoming إِيدِيلَ (łdqlér); or, the plural sign may be given to the radical element, and إيدى be kept unchanged; as,
 optative, which prefers ديلرِ.

Section XI. Of the Complex Categories.
The Complex Categories of every Turkish verb, active or passive, transitive or intransitive, affirmative, negative, or impotential, are formed, even as to their roots, with an auxiliary verb, اُولْمَقْ (blmåq) to be or become; itself conjugated, as a simple verb, in conformity with what has already been laid down, and joined to the aorist, past, and future active participles of the verb of which the complex category is to be formed. The auxiliary follows the participle.

With the aorist participle, the auxiliary verb ${ }^{\text {in }}$ forms the First Complex Category; with the past participle, it forms the Second Complex Category; and with the future participle, it forms the Third Complex Category.

It would be possible to avoid using these terms, and to fuse
the whole into one vast conjugation, by following the method used by European grammarians, each for the European language in which be treats of the subject. In some respects, such au arrangement would possess an advantage. It would bring together tenses of the one verb, which are but delicate modifications of each other. I'he disadvantage would be, on the whole, preponderant; for the one vast conjugation of simple and complex tenses formed with continually intermingling, varying participles, would be very puzzling to the novice, would choke out of view the principles of the subdivision, and prevent a lucid exposition thereof, besides demanding the invention of a bost of new names by which to distinguish the numerous tenses so brought together; whereas, by keeping the same names for the same tenses of the four categories, it would seem that a truer perception of the shade of meaning which distinguishes each of the four tenses of each name will be more easily attained and more firmly grasped. Still, as a comparison with other systems offers a certain amount of utility, we have given below the three complex categorits apart, to show their principles, and have then arranged the whole four categories as a single conjugation.

Section XII. The First Complex Category.
'This is formed with the aorist active participle, of every
class of verb, active or passive, transitive or intransitive, primary or derivative, affirmative or negative. In form, it is simply the conjugation of the auxiliary verb أُولْمٌ (dlmåq) to be, the participle, as an adjective, remaining invariable throughout. We give one person only in each tense.

Infinitive.

|  | To be a willing, natural, determined, constant, or habitual kicker; to be kicking; to kick (habitually). |
| :---: | :---: | Imperative.

تَرْهُولْ (tepèr dl)
Be thou kicking; kick thou (habitually).

Indicative.
Present.

Imperfect.

Aorist.

I am continually kicking; I shall be ever kicking.

## Past.

 I would be, or would have been, always kicking.

Perfect.
تَتِرْ اوُلدٌ
Pluperfect.
تَرْ أولْمْ stant kicker.

Future.
 stant kicker.

Future Past.
 Necessitative.

Aorist.
 stant kicker.

Past.
(teper olmåliyłdim) I ought to have been a constant kicker.

## Optative.

Aorist.


## Past.

That I had been a constant
kicker.

Conditional.
Aorist.


Were I, should I become, a constant kicker.

Past.


Active Participles.
Present.
تَبَرْأولَانْ
Who or which is, was, will be, a constant kicker.

Aorist.
تَهْرَأولُورَ (tèpèr dlưr) (perhaps unused, as a cacophony.)
Past.

Perfect.
تَبْرْاُوْمْقْتْ
Who was a constant kicker.
Future.
(tèpèr dlảjảqq) Who is to be a constant kicker.
Passive Participles.
Aorist.
تَيْرْ وُوْلْقٌ
Who or which (a kicker) has constantly kicked.

Future.

> تَبرَ اُولَجْقْ (têpér dlajả̉q) Who, which (I, \&c.) am abont constantly to kick.

Verbal Nouns.
Present.
تَرْ اُولمه (tépèr dlmå)
The act of being (at any time) a constant kicker.

Perfect.
تَبْ اُولدْتَ
The act of having been (then) a constant kicker.

Future.
تَرْ وُولَهجق (teper olảjảq)
The act of being about (now) to become (hereafter) a constant kicker.

Gerunds.
1st. تَترَ اُولُوبْ (teper dlưp) Being a constant kicker (and ......).
 stant kicker (so and so also occurs).

 stant kicker, ......
 stant kicker, ......
7th. تَيْرَأُلَهِلى (têpèr diâlí) Ever since - became (has been) a constant kicker, ......

## Section XIII. The Second Complex Category.

Infinitive.
Present.
تَتِبْشْ اُولْمَقْ
Imperative.
Future.
تَتْشْ أُولْ (telpmlsh dl)
Be thou one who has kicked ; have kicked.

Indicative.
Present.
 who has kicked; I have kicked.
Imperfect.

Aorist.
تَنِشْ اُولوْرم

Past.
(tépmlsh olủrdủm) I should have kicked.
Perfect.
تَهْشْ اُولْدمْ
I became one who had kicked, I had kicked.

Pluperfect.
 kicked.

Future.
(tepmlsh olajaghim) I am about becoming one who has kicked; I am going to have kicked.
Future Past.

|  |  |
| ---: | :--- |
|  | kicked. |

Necessitative.
Aorist.
(tépmish olmảlǐyim) I must (now) have kicked (then).
Past.
 kicked (before).

Optative.
Aorist.
(tépmish olayim, That I may have kicked. (ولم الم

Past.
(tepmtsh oldydtm) That I had kicked.
Conditional.
Aorist.

Past.
(tepmotsh olsảydtm) Had I (already) kicked (before then).

Active Participles.
Present.
تَتْمِشْ أَلاَنْ
Aorist.
(têpmtsh olưr)
Who will have (already) kicked.

Past and Perfect, perhaps not used.
Future.


> Passive Participles.
> Aorist.

Which (a kicker) had (aIready) kicked.

Future.
(tépmish duaxjaq)
Which (a kicker) will have kicked.

Verbal Nouns.
Present.
تَبْمْ نْ اُولْمَه (têpmłsh olmả)
The (present state of) having (already) kicked.
Perfect.
تَتِشْ أُولدُدْ
The (past state of) having (previously) kicked.
Future.
تَتِمْشْ أُولهجَقْ
The (future state of) having (previously) kicked.

Gerunds.

2nd. واُولَرقَْ ... ( ... blarraq) Having the continued quality of having kicked (and ...).
 will be) one who or which had kicked, ...

 kicked,....
 kicked, ....


Section XIV. The Third Complex Category.
Infinitive.
Present.
(tepejek olmảq) To be about to kick (ready to kick).
Imperative.
Future.
تَيَهجَكَ 1و (tepejek dl) Be thou about to kick.
Indicative.
Present.
(tèpèjek ollyorim) I am (often) on the point of kicking ; I become on the point ....
Imperfect.
(tèpèjèk dliydr ldim) I was (often) on the point....
Aorist.


Past.
 should be (then) ou the point ....
Perfect.
I was (then) on the
point ....
Pluperfect.
تَهِجَكْ اُولدْمْ إِدِى (tèpejjèk dldum idt) I had been (before then) on the point ....

Future and Future Past.
تَتَهِجَ اُولَدجَغْمْ Not used, as being caco-


Necessitative.
Aorist.

Past.
 on the point ....

Optative.
Aorist.
تَهَ جَكْ اُولَمْمْ (tépèjek oladm)
That I may be on the point ....

Past.
 point ....

## Conditional.

A.orist.
(tepejek dlsảm) Were I to be or become on the point ....
Past.
(tèpejek ollsdydîm) Had I been on the point ....
Active Participles.
Present.
تَّهَجْكْ اُولاَنَّ (tepejjek olản)
Who or which is or becomes on the point ....

Aorist.


Who or which is (naturally) or will be (some time) on the point ....

## Past and Perfect.

 Future.
(tepejek dlajả̉q) Not used, as being cacophonous.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Passive Participles. } \\
& \text { Aorist. } \\
& \text { تَّهُجْكَ أُولُّقٌ } \\
& \text { point .... } \\
& \text { Future. } \\
& \text { Cacophonous; not used. } \\
& \text { Verbal Nouns. } \\
& \text { Present. } \\
& \text { تَّهجَلْ اُُلْثَ } \\
& \text { (at any time) on the point.... } \\
& \text { Perfect. } \\
& \text { (teppejêk oldưq) The past act or state of being } \\
& \text { (then) on the point .... } \\
& \text { Future. } \\
& \text { Cacophonous; not used. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Gerunds.

Dst. تَّهَجْنٌ اُولُوبْ (têpèjek olup) Being about to kick (and ....)
 to kick (and ....)
 will be) about to kick,

 about to kick, ....
6th. © about ....
 on the point ....

Section XV. . The Combined (true Turkish) Conjugation.
Infinitive.

Imperative.
Future.

Indicative.
Present.


25 0
$3 \operatorname{con}^{2}$ (6)
Imperf.
تَتِيْرُرْـِى
....
...
ज0, ...
Aorist.
تَرْرْ
. أُورُرْ
$\operatorname{cig}^{0}+4$

- اُورُ ...

Past. تَتَرْدِى
$\left(\operatorname{sig}_{3}\right)^{2}$
$(53 y)$ $\left(\cos ^{3} y^{\prime}\right)^{\prime}$

Perfect.
 ..............
 ....

Pluperf. تَبْدِديدى

...



## Necessitative.

A.orist.


Past. تَهْمَـبـو إِيدِى Optative.

Aorist.


تَّهُجَكْ أُولَد
Past.

... اُولَدْدِى إِ
...
Conditional.
Aorist.


Past.




Active Participles.
Present. ${ }^{\text {تَيَ. }}$ تَتْشْ اُولَانْ

تَهَهِّكْ اُولاَنْ
Aorist. تَتْ ... اُُلُرْرْ

أُولرُ
...
Past.
تَيْمِنْ
(not used)

Perfect. تَّهِّنْ
... اُولُدُقْ
اُرلُدْتْ
... أُوْلْقْتْ



Verbal Nouns．

| Present． | －80ه80 | تهر اْوُلمهن |  | لَّهُ جْكَ اُولْهُ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perfect． | تَبْدِّ | ، ．．．اُودْدقْ | اُولْقٌ | اُولدُقْ |
| Future． | تَيَهجكْ جْ | ．．．أُولَجهِّ | ... اُولَجْ | （not used．） |

Gerunds．

| 1 lst | تَبِّبْبْ |  | تَبِّهْ إرْكِّ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| d． | تَّركّ | 隹 ．．．． | ．．．． | آكَرْرَّ |
| 3rd． |  | ． |  | أُرْكُهْ |
| 4th． | تَبِّهِ |  | 隹 | ＇， |
| 5 th． |  |  |  | أرله إرلد． |
| 6 th． | \％ | 隹 |  |  |
| 7 th． | تَتِلِ |  |  | ＇أرلّإِبر |

Section XVI The Negative and Impotential Conjugations．
The Negative and Impotential Conjugations，twenty－four in number to each simple verb，as a general rule，are formed pre－ cisely on the lines of the simple affirmative conjugation in its four categories，as above given，with the exception of the aorist of the indicative，as to its root－word of the third person
singular, and the corresponding aorist active participle, which end in $\%$ (måz), instead of the final,, of the affirmative.

## Infinitive.

Present.


تَيَمْيَهِجْكْ

Imperative.
Future.


Jg ... 皆

Indicative.
Presènt.


Imperfect.

$$
\left(\operatorname{sig}^{0}+y^{2}\right.
$$

تَيَهْزْ ...

$$
\cos _{0}^{3} \operatorname{sig}_{0} \operatorname{col}_{0}^{0}
$$

تَهِمَامِشْ ...

$$
\ldots \text { 志 }
$$

Aorist.

| تَهْزه\% |  | مرِّ | تَمْمَهِجْ جَ اُولُرْ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| تَهُهْ\% | .... | ... |  |

Past.


(53) Jo


تَكْمْز
تَهِمَامِشْ ...

Perfect.


تَمْزَمُ ُولْدُى

تََهْمْز ...
تَهْمَمَامْنُ ...

Pluperfect.
تَمْمْدِيدِ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تَمْمَّ اُولْدِيدِى }
\end{aligned}
$$

تَتَمْدِيدِى
 تَيَمْيَهُجْ

Future.
تَ تِيه
备d

(not used)
تَهَمْمِجْكْ

... تَيَمَمِمْ
(not used)
Futare Past.

(not used)

(not used)

Necessitative.
Aorist.


Past.


Optative.
Aorist.

|  | تَّهْزْ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |

Past.


Conditional.
Aorist.


Active Participles.
Present.


تَ
تَّهْزْ ...
تَّهَامْنُ ...


Aorist.


Past.

(not used)
تَمْيَهُجَكْ اُرلمُشْ

Perfect.


تَهْمَامِْ اُولْدُقْ

تَهَمَدْنُ
تَيَهْزْْمْ ...
تََهمَامْسْ ...
تَّهُميَهِجكَ هِ ...

Future.

(not used)
تَبَمْمَهُجْهْ
تَحَمْزْ ...
تَيَمْامِشْ ...
(not used)

Passive Participles.
Aorist.


تَمْمَهْ جَكْ اُولُدُقْ
تَيْمَيْهِجْك ...
Future.

(wat wood)
تَدْمَّدجْنْ
تَيَهْز

(rotalcisan)

Verbal Nouns.
Present.


Perfect.

تَتْمَابْشْ اُولُدْقْ

تَّهَزْ ...

$$
\omega \cdot \cos ^{4} \log _{4}^{-\infty}
$$

تَيَمَيْجَبَهْ ...
Future.

Gerunds.
تَمْزْرْ
تَيَهميَهجكَ جَ






تَتَمْمْ


تَّهَيْجَّهُ ...




ren
تَبْمْزَ أرْفِيْنٍ
تَبَيَّبَجْ ...


Section XVII.
The Dubitative, Potential and Facile Verbs, \&c.
The Dubitative Verb is formed by adding the syllable مُشْ , ( $\mathrm{mlsh}, \mathrm{mish}$ ), or the word إِيْشْ ( l ( mlsh ), to any personal verb, indicative or necessitative, active or passive, affirmative, negative, or impotential ; but, in the perfect indicative, it displaces the syllable دِّ (d) of the root. It casts a doubt on what is said; and is often added, in conversation, by another speaker, to express that he considers what has been affirmed by the former speaker to be questionable, or hearsay, or mere assumption. When the first speaker uses it himself, he does so to express that what he relates is either doubtful, hearsay, or erroneous assumption, from some other person. It is a gross vulgarism, to which Armenians and European novices are addicted, to use this dubitative syllable, in conversation, where
the of the perfect indicative, or of any compound tense, is required. In writing, there is no denying that this form is systematically used, by the best authorities, in place of the tense they would employ in speaking. The form has a more musical sound ; and it is, in my opinion, a fruit of imitating Persian verb-forms in Turkish; initiated, probably, by the Persian scribes of the early reigns.

In dubitative conjugation, this syllable for follows the simple tense-root and its plural, preceding the compound and personal terminations, singular or plural; unless it be spoken by another person. In this last case, it naturally comes alone,
 said, supposed, pretended, suggested, frc., that I am kicking; (tlptyormtsh ldtñ) it is said, frc., that thou wast
 (tépermlsh ldik) it is said, \&c., that we used to kick; (tepmish slñtz) it is said, \&fc., that you kicked or
 they are going to kick. (This word or syllable, مُشْ , إيشٌ, is


The Potential Verb is formed of the fifth gerund (not repeated) followed by the verb بِلْمَكْ (btlmek) in its entire conjugation, the gerund remaining unchanged throughout. This auxiliary verb then means to be able, and answers to our

Euglish can. Ex.: تَته بِلْمَمْنَ (têpe blımekk) to be able to kick ;


The Facile Verb is formed by the root of a verb, to which an èsere is added, followed by a vowel $\mathcal{G}$ and the auxiliary verb ويرِمْك (virmèk, vulg. vèrmèk). With a vowel verb other than one in $\mathcal{v}$, a consonantal $\mathcal{v}$, with éséré, is added between the root-vowel and the servile vowel ; and with a verb in vowel $\mathcal{\varepsilon}$, this is made into a consonant with ésere, and the


 of great ease, readiness, off-handedness in the action, which we express in English by saying just to kick, just to give a kick; just to cover over; just to read or recite; just to scratch out ; \&c.

There are several other Turkish verbs in use as special auxiliaries after the gerund of the original verb; as,
 يَزْمقْ happening; the next three signify persistency; and the last the idea of having almost happened, of being within an ace
 quently, of course, as is well known; to be a common occurrence;

$q^{*}$ àmảq) to stand (remain) staring in surprise and amazement; (dûshưnưp yåtmắq) to remain (lie) pondering, in a brown study; بَإيلَ يَزْمتَ (bàyîlà ydzmåq) to give one's self up (write) as about to faint; \&c., \&c., \&c.

## Section XVIII. The Verb Substantive.

In Turkish there is no extant verb substantive, answering in all its moods and tenses to our verb to be. In one sense,
 independent verb; but as such, it is a verb adjective, and continually lapses into the parallel idea of to become.

The Turkish originally had a true verb substantive, © إِّهِ (lmek) to be. This exists fragmentarily in Ottoman Turkish; perhaps in certain persons of the present, certainly in the perfect of the indicative, in the aorist conditional, in the past active participle, in the perfect verbal noun, and in the gerund, apparently modified from the present active participle (which in eastern and old Turkish was aud is formed in ${ }^{\circ} \dot{\zeta}$ or ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, even ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$, traces of which are numerous in Ottoman, as adjectives). Thus:

## Indicative.


 ṣiñĩz) you are.
 he was; إِدِكْ (ldik) we were ; إِدِيكِز (idtñzz) you were; إِيدِيلَ-

## Conditional Aorist.


 (lseler) if they are.

Past Active Participle.
إِيِشْ (lmish) who or which was.
Verbal Noun Perfect.
إيدكّ (iddk) the fact of having been.
Gerund.

These fragments are made negative by prefixing the adverb
 (dyyll ldlm) I was not; دِيِرلَ إِيسهمْ (diyll tsèm) if I am not; دِيرِل إِيدِّهْ (dyyll Idik) not used as a verbal noun, but replaced
 دِيكِر إِبَنْ (dyyll lken) while not being.

The present tense indicative of the foregoing fragmentary verb is completed, as to its third persons, sivgular and plural,
by using, when necessary only, the special, unique, and most distinctive Turkish invariable particle of affirmation, دِرْ (dtr, dir) is, and its conventional (unnecessary) plural, ِرْ (dirlèr, dirlảr) are (which is just as well expressed by the singular).

This word ${ }^{\circ}$, , written in eastern Turkish ${ }^{\circ}$, (durr), as it is still pronounced in provincial Ottoman, is often fouud also, in old and eastern writings, under the uncontracted form of دُرورز (durdr). This circumstance leads to a suspicion that the word is, originally, the aorist of the ordinary verb دُرْمِّقْ (dudrmåq) to remain.

However that may be, the peculiarity of the word is that it is not special to the third person singular, or to the two third persons, singular and plural. It is often used, in writing and in conversation, after a verb of the first or second person also, siugular or plural, of any simple tense of the indicative, with or without the plural $\operatorname{sign}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{J}$, when the sense admits it. It is, in fact, an exact equivalent to the French inchoative expression c'est que, and the Latin constat quod, which can be used to introduce any indicative proposition, as the Turkish ${ }^{\circ}$, is used to conclude and complete any such. And, as the French and Latin clauses can be omitted without the sense suffering, so also can the Turkish 3 . In couversation it is much more dispensed with than used.

(dlytllèr dtr) and دِبِكِلْ دِرْرَ (dłytl dtrlér) are not (just as well expressed without the لَّرْ).

Section XIX. The Verb of Presence and Absence, of Existence and Non-Existence.

There are no such verbs in Turisish. What there are, and what Europeans have erroneously chosen to designate as such, are two adjectives, وَارْ (var) present or existent, يُرْ (y $\delta \mathrm{oq}$ ) absent or non-existent. Like any other substantive or adjective, these may be followed by the verbal particle of affirmation which, in this case, as in any other case, may be omitted in conversation.

It may be convenient, occasionally, for a novice in Turkish
 means there is not. But, unless rightly understood, those renderings are misleading. The expressions really say and mean he, she, or $i t$, is present (or existent); he, she, or it, is absent (or
 existent (somewhere); آَتَه يُوقْ (âtelsh ydq) fire (is) absent (here), or non-existent (anywhere).

Then, such a phrase as وَرْ وأولْ (var dl) be thou present (or existent), يُـوقْ اوَلْ (ybq dI) be thou absent (or non-existent), becomes c'ear. The first is a kind of prayer, Mayest thou ever exist, and be at hand, ready to help the afficted! while the
second is a condemnation, a sentence of banishment or annihilation, or a wish in the nature of a curse, Away! Avaunt! \&c.

By using a locative with these two expressions, they become
 in my pocket money is present (I have some money in my pocket) ; اَوِيْدَه اُوطُونمْ يوقْ ايِدِى (evimde ddunum ydq ldt) in my house my firewood was absent, wanting, non-existent (I had no firewood in my house).

By using a possessive pronoun (with or without a genitive as well) with these two expressions, the idea of possersion is
 exists (i. e., I have money, I have some money) ; نَارَك © (parañ̃ ydq) money belonging to thee (is) non-existent (i. e., thou hast no
 dir) many books belonging to his father are existent (i. e., his
 ihtlyäjlm yoq ldi) any need of mine to (lean on) thee (for assistance) was non-existent (i. e., I had no need of thee).

Section XX. Of the Compound Verbs.
Besides the Turkish verbs already described, the Ottoman language has been indefinitely enriched with whole classes of
compound verbs, active and passive, transitive and intransitive, formed by a Turkish auxiliary verb preceded by a substantive or adjcctive of Arabic or Persian, even of foreign, origin.

An active compound verb is formed, generally, by an Arabic, rarely by a. Persian verbal noun, or by a foreign substantive, followed by one of the auxiliaries ${ }^{\text {© }}$
 to command, to deign to do; or by an Arabic (very seldom, a Persian, never a foreign) active participle, followed by the
 tive or intransitive. The first three auxiliaries are identical in sense; the first is the most frequently used; the second often, the third occasionally, replaces it, so as to avoid repetition; and the fourth is uscd when a deferential tone is assumed in speaking or writing to or of a superior, and politely to or
 (lrsāl bủyủrmâq) to deign or condescend to send, to favour by sending, to have the goodness to send; موجِبْ اُولْنَ 0 (mūjłb dlmảq) to cause ; تَوطُّ أَيُهَكْ (tèvảttun éylèmek) to settle (in a place, as a home); (pesshīmān olmả̉q) to be regretfully or penitently sorry (for some act) ; ويزِيـتَ إِتْهَكْ (Vlztte etmekk) to visit, to pay a visit.

Transitive verbs of this class form their passives with the

 have done (to it) the action of being sent (for the Arabic and Persiau verbal nouns, the reverse of the more general Turkish rule, take the passive as well as the active sense). Deferential compound passives are formed with the passive auxiliary بيورُلْمٌ
 descendingly sent, to be kindly sent.

Reciprocal verbs active of this class are formed with the reciprocal of إِيْكَ mèk) ; as, خُرومتْ إِدِشْهَاْنٌ (khusūmèt ldlshmek) mutually to exercise hostility, litigation, or spite, towards one another.

Causatives of the simple and reciprocal are formed by the

 to cause or let (two or more) mutually attack each other.

Negatives and impotentials, as also dubitatives, potentials, and faciles, are constructed with those forms of

 إْرْمازل إِدَه بِلْمَكْْ

Suction XXI. Of the Interrogative Verb, and Interrogation in general.

All interrogations, in Turkish (when an interrogative pronoun is not present in the phrase, as such), are made by introducing the interrogative particle or adverb (mi, mi) into its proper position in the phrase.

The proper position of this particle in the phrase is the end of the word on which the question turns. We have no equivalent for it in English; in Latin the word an, and the enclitic particle $n e$, are its equivalents; also the French est-ce que?

This may be best shown by an example of five elements, each of which may be the word on which the question specially turns, so that the adverb $\mathbf{v}_{\text {, is successively joined to each of }}$ them to indicate that speciality. Thus:

1. ${ }^{\circ}$ (sânmł sảbâh bèntmlå "årảbdyả blnèjeksin)
Is it thou who art to ride with me to-morrow in the carriage:
 bdyå bènejekkstn)
Is it to-morrow that thou art to ride with me in the carriage?
2. (sản sẩbāh bènłmlảmỉ eảrà̉bdyå błnèjèkstn)
Is it with me that thou art to ride in the carriage to-morrow?
 $\mathrm{m}^{2}$ binejjekstn)
Is it in the carriage that thou art to ride with me to-morrow?
3. (sán sảbbāh bènłmlả̉ ảrảbdyả błnèjekmłstn)
Art thou going to ride with me to-morrow in the carriage?

This does not, however, exhaust the possible points of the question in the case of this sentence, nor the proper places of the adverb $\mathcal{N}_{5}$, in it. The phrase itself may be in question, as to whether these words were used, or some others, by the person to whom the interrogation is addressed. In that case, the adverb would stand after the personal euding of the
 bayả binejeksin ml), which means, Dost thou say, thou wilt ride with me to-morrow in the carriage?

The last two instances call specially for the explanation that, in compound verbs the proper place of the adverb may be between the two elements of the verb. Thus we may ask, إرسّال ${ }^{-1}$ Is it to send (and not himself carry, for instance) that he is going to do? and Is he going to send?

In Turkish simple or derivative verbs, supposing that the adverb is to follow the verb in the sentence, and not some
other member thereof, then a further question is seen to arise in No. 5 above given, as to the exact part of the verb itself that takes this word after it. In this respect, the tenses have first to be considered. The simple tenses take the adverb at the end of the tense-root, and their compounds also, before
 was he doing? Next, a distinction has to be made between the third persons, singular and plural, as one group, and the first and second persons, singular and plural also, as another group. The first-named group of tenses have no personal endings, the second group have special personal endings, and the interrogative precedes these, following the tense-root still;
 misin) art thou kicking? تَتَسِورْبِ (teplydrmi) is he kicking?

 kicking?

The perfect tense indicative forms an exception to the foregoing rule, as it takes the interrogative after the personal


 have we kicked? did we kick? تَتْدِيكِزْمْى (têpdiñizmi) have you
 did they kick ?

## Section XXII. Of Adverbial Expressions.

As explained in Section II., every Turkish adjective is also an adverb.

Every noun of time is also used as an adverb; as,



Adjectives of relative place, like all adjectives, are used as adverbs; thus, يُ يُقَارِى (yùqdrî chîq) mount up, walk up, climb up, ascend ; آشَاغى كَّ (âshaghỉ gâl) come down, descend ;
 come back.

But substantives of place, like all substantives, can be used adverbially by the sole means of being joined to prepositions;

 مَاغَغهِ كِيتْ (sadghả̉ glt) go to the right ; \&c.

A possessive pronoun may enter into such an adverbial
 the top of me.

An adjective, substantive, and preposition may join to form an adverbial expression; as, آلْتْ طَرْنْه (alt tarafda) on the lower
 from lower down.

So an adjective, substantive, possessive, and preposition may be combined in an adverbial expression ; as, اُوسْتْ يَاتَه (unst
 side below thee; مَأْ طَرْنْذْنْ 0 (Eàgh tårảfi̊ndảnn) from his (her, its) right-hand side.

With certain special exceptions, any Arabic substantive or adjective becomes an adverb by adding an ůstủn and vowel I to it; this being often marked with a double ưstůn sign, and read ản; or, if the word is a feminine in $\gamma$, by putting two dots, with or without the double asstưn sign to it, withont an 1; thus, $\bar{y}$ لُط (tūlản) in length, longwise, in longitude;





The first teu Arabic ordinals are thus much used adverbially; as,




## Section XXIII. Of Prepositions.

They always follow the substantive or pronoun. Besides those given in the chapter on the substantive, there are but

 the manner of.

Section XXIV. Of Conjunctions.
The conjunctions $\bar{\gamma}$ (dả) and ${ }^{\text {( }}$ (dảkbí) also, follow the word they unite to a preceding one; as, (glderreản, bèn-dả̉ głdèrtm) if thou wilt yo, I also will go ; بُونِي (bu dảkhí) this, too.

All other conjunctions head the clauses which they connect.
The principal of these are: $;$ ( $v \&$, in Persian couplets read





 order that; as far as. Of these, some are Turkish, some Arabic, others Persian in origin.

Section XXV. Of Interjections.

These are mostly Arabic or Persian in origin. They pre-

 help; آَفِرِنْ (āferin, vulg. āfertm) bravo.

There is, bowever, a peculiar Turkish interjection T(a) 0 , that joins on to the vocative following it ; as, (a-baba) 0 father ; Éíl (A-ảnả) O mother. It also follows nouns, pronouns, and verbs, taking the sense of Yes! Indeed! I told you so!

 diñ-a) thou couldst not see; after all!

## CHAPTER III.

## The Ottoman Syntax.

Section I. Conversational brevity. Precision in writing.
Cocloquial and written Ottoman Turkish, as far as Syntax is concerned, are the very antipodes of each other.

As in the orthography the rule is given: " Never introduce a vowel-letter into a Turkish or foreign word without removing a possible doubt as to pronunciation; never leave out a vowel in such a word, if by the omission a doubt is created as to pronunciation,"-that is, be always as concise as is possible without falling into ambiguity; so also, in colloquial syntax the chief rule is: Never repeat a word, or introduce its equivalent, and never use a subsidiary word, unless for the sake of emphasis; whereas the golden rule for written language is, Never omit any word that tends to make a sentence clear and explicit. On the contrary, introduce freely as many new words as may, in the requisite degree, elucidate the sense sought to be conveyed. In other words, Spoken Ottoman Turkish should be as concise as possible, even to the verge of ambiguity;
written Ottoman Turkish must be as full, verbally, as to leave no doubt on the mind of the reader at any distance of space or time. The reasons are obvious and eminently practical, philosophical; namely: If, by reason of a speaker's conciseness, a doubt as to his meaning should arise in the mind of the person addressed, a question can be put, and the doubt at once removed; if, on the contrary, a written document be left obscure in any part, the doubt thence arising must remain unsolved, and the meaning guessed at, because the writer is either dead or away at a distance.

Hence, if one be asked, بُو نهَ دِرْ (bú ne dłr) what is this ? the answer, in Ottoman Turkish, will be, for instance, أَلَّ (elmà) an apple, as in English. (A Frenchman would answer: "C'est




 yer-mt-sin) If I give this to thee (you), wilt thou (will you) eat (it)? the answer will be either يَرِّ (yerlm) I will eat (it), or يَبَم (yémảm) I will not eat (it). In this last question, the omission of " it," even by the asker, is to be remarked.

As instances of the omission of all possible subsidiary words from phrases in conversation, may be mentioned that of the
affirmative (dlr) is, it is, he or she is, on all occasions of ordinary assertion or negation. The personal and corroborative possessive pronouns are never employed in conversation

 thee (you), بَنْ سنى شَوِيورٍِ (bèn sảnł ...) I, personally, love thee; (båbåm gàldi) my father came, or has come.

As a consequence of the desire to leave no doubt as to the meaning of a writing, nouns and verbs in apposition, in pairs, are much used ; such are, وِد , وَحْبَتْ (vidd ù mảbảbbèt) friend-


A result of the avoidance of unnecessary repetition is that the third person singular of a verb is often employed instead of its plural when the nominative plural is expressed; as, آدمْلْرْ 0 came.

Another such result is the use of a singular substantive with a plural cardinal number ; as, أُ (ûch ât) three horses, (blñ ẻrabả) a thousand vehicles (carriages, carts, waggons, \&c.).

To make written composition still more precise, it is very usual, after introducing a common substantive or a proper name into a paragraph or article, letter, dispatch, \&c., never to use a personal pronouu to designate the thing or person
so named, but to repeat the substantive or proper name as often as may be required, either preceded or followed by one
 for things or persons, ${ }^{\circ}$ (messfūr), for a coutemned or criminal person, مُوْمَى الَّلَهْهُ (mūmd lley-h), for a reputable person, and مُشَرُرإلَيْهـ، (mưshārủn llèy-h), for a person of rank and consideration. These words all mean, in rcality, the aforesaid, the afore-mentioned, the said, \&c. In the case of a person first mentioned by name, or by a common substantive, these words may be used as substantives,-we might say,-as a kind of personal or demonstrative pronoun, in all the cases of the declension; but, in the case of a thing, they must be used as adjectives to its name, repcated each time.

## Section II. Syntax of the Substantive.

A common noun substantive singular may be either definite or indefinite, and may represent, according to circumstances or the context, either an individual or the individual, several individuals, a portion of the species, or the whole species; as, بَانْهَه كُزْزَ شَىْ (pādłshāh gâldt) the monarch came, or has come;

 $\mathrm{d} \mathrm{r})$ flowers are the ornaments of the gardens, of the garden;
 wine, \&c.), صو آَقرْ 0 (su âqdr) water flows.

In the accusative case indefinite, the substantive is as in the
 water). If the declensional accusative is used, it is always
 the water.

There are four different Turkish methods of constructing two substantives in a sentence. First, by simple juxtaposition; second, by adding the possessive suffix of the third person to the second substantive; third, by putting the first in the genitive, and still adding the possessive suffix to the second; and fourth, by putting the first in some other prepositional case, and leaving the second unchanged.

In simple juxtaposition of two substantives, the first indicates a material, the second a form ; or, the first indicates a quantity, the second a material ; as, الْتَبْونْ قُوطُى (âltin qưtư) a gold box ; بَرْ كِـيـلَه آرِّهـه (blr klle drpd) a bushel (of) barley;

 coats.

With the possessive suffix alone added, a relation of genus and species is indicated, the genus standing last, and the com-
 book-cover; آَوْ كُوبَكى (ev kyůpéyi) a house (domestic) doy; يَبَانْ اُورْرِّى (yåbẳn ưrdeỳl) a duck of the wilderness (wild $d u c k)$. If the first is a proper name, the second is the species, the first the name of the individual, and the combination is


With the first in the genitive, real possession is indicated, the name of the possessor being the first, and the combination



When the first is pat into a prepositional case, the second remains without a suffix, and the combination may be definite or indefinite, an active participle being always understood; as,

 kèreè) once in a month; \&c.

When two substantives are in apposition, no change is made

 (who is) a Mushir. Here, the generic word stands last, and the combination is definite. Sometimes, the specific word or
term is complex and obeys its own rules; as, اُونْ بَأبرى آغَا (bnbăshî âghâ) Mr. Corporal ; (mīr-allāy bèy) Squire
 Pasha.

There are two exceptions to the rule that the generic word stands last, when the other word is a proper name. In all other cases with proper names, this rule bolds good; as,
 Judge Izzet; عَارِفْ آَفَنْدِى ('arlf efendl) Mr. 'Arif; \&c. The exceptions are: 1, the word ${ }^{\circ}$
 hảmid); 2, the word ${ }^{3}$ َّ $م$, when applied to a student or schoolboy, also before his name ; as, مُولاْ رَاشَـد (molla rāshld) schoolboy Rashid.

Any number of substantives may be in apposition, and one of them may be the proper name of the individual; as,


 âlày rèfīq bèy qủlùñuzz) your servant, my son, Colonel Reff $q$ Bey; \&c.

When a string of substantives in construction would in strictness require several of them consecutively to be put in
the genitive case, the monotonous cacophony of the repetition of the preposition is avoided by omitting it once or twice
 (pảshàniñ endshtésłnłñ dadyisinnîñ dghlunuñ a atí) the horse of the son of the uncle of the brother-in-law of the pasha, may be expressed in either of the following ways : بَاشَانْكْ أَنْشْتَسِى دَايِسيسى
 , or or orيسنَكْ أُوْنْكُكْ آَيِى genitive preposition being, perhaps, the most frequeutly retained and necessary.

Two or more Arabic or Persian substantives may be put in Persian construction with each other. Their order is then the reverse of what it would be in Turkish construction, just as in English the king's horse is in reverse order with the horse of the king. In Persian construction each preceding substantive of a series must be vocally connected with its consequent. This vocal connexion is effected by making the final quiescent consonant of the preceding substantive movent with eserre; thus, فَرْمَانِ شَـْانْ (fermānt shāh) the command of the king;
 of the command of the king of Persia. But, if the last consonant of a preceding substantive is movent, and followed by a vowel-letter, a servile consonant must be introduced to support the esedre vowel of conuexion ; and this consonant varies
with the final vowel of the word. When the final vowel-letter
 pā-yl esb) the place of the foot of the horse; موري روي سَكْ (mūyù rū-yu sèg) the hair of the face of the dog. If the final vowel-letter be a $\mathfrak{k}$, this letter is converted itself into the servile consonant required; so that no written addition is
 well of the tower. Ignorance often writes a hemzè over such final $s$ so converted into a consonant; but it really is not requisite. If, however, the final vowel be the letter $\delta$, then the addition of a hèmze is a necessity. Sometimes the esere vowel-sign is figured under it, $\varepsilon$. Usage is divided as to the proper plaee where the servile hemze should be written. It is at times more correctly placed between the two words, on a line with the writing; as, بَرْءء فَـَلـَنْ (bèrè-1 fellek) the lamb of the sphere (i.e., Aries); and otherwise it is less correetly placed over the vowel 8 ; as, برَ

Of two substantives in Persian construction, the first is often the metaphorical name of the thing literally expressed by the second, the pair really representing one idea under two images;
 ('inānl cåzimet) the reins (of) departure.

Whether in Turkish or Persian construction, the same remark holds good of a pair of substantives, one of which is

 our circumstance, and the like. They are used in written
 silin emr-ł łnsilakł) the matter of the pursuit of the path of study; دُونَانْهْ the question of the coming of the fleet.

After a proper name of a person or thing, the word ${ }^{\circ} \dot{\dot{\zeta}}$ (nām) name, is commonly employed; as, اَحْدُ نَامْ ذَاتْ
 the island (peninsula) named Crimea.
 originally mean presence and side, are used before or after the names or titles of individnals held in honour, with a meaning varying from that of His Divine Majesty down to that of plain Mr. or Mrs., \&c. When they precede, they remain unchanged


 ( jènāh-î pādtshāh) His Majesty, the Sovereign; جَنَابِ مَدَارَتْهَاتَبْ ( - sẳdarett-mẩ à̉b) His Highness, the Repair of the Vezirate (the Grand Vezir). When they follow, they are in Turkish construction, and generally take the possessive pronominal
suffix of the third person plural, but sometimes that of the
 'l-1slām tāhłr bèy hảzrètlêrl) His Eminence the Lord High
 mửftisi hảsả̉n ęfèndł jènābî) His Honour the State Counsel of Brusa, Hasan Efendi; سَفِيرْ עَآَا حَضْرَتْرِّى (sefir pàshd -) His
 bey - ) His Worship the Interpreter Bey; \&c., \&c., \&c. Generally, the word $\stackrel{0}{ت}$ حضرْ before a single name indicates one of the prophets, saints, or patriarchs of old; as, حضْرت نُوْ (hả̉zreti nūh) the patriarch Noah; مُوسَ - (
 Solomon; $\underset{\sim}{\circ}$ - (- meryem) Saint Mary (the Virgin
 ( - mèsih) the holy Anointed One (Christ); \&c., \&c., \&c.

## Section III. Syntax of the Adjective.

Nearly everything requisite in a sketch bas been said on this subject in the former Chapter (II.), Section II. If several adjectives qualify one substantive, they follow one another simply in Turkish coustruction, and are all connected vocally

eddebll, màbjūb ch $\delta j$ juq) a pretty, well-behaved, modest child ; (jā-yl blhlsht-nåmã-yl fèrảh-fézā) a paradise-like, joy-giving place.

One adjective may qualify several substantives in a sentence;
 nations.

An Arabic or Persian adjective is never placed after a Turkish or foreign substantive; and whenever either is placed before one of these, it remains, like a Turkish adjective, un-
 a great mountain ; عَظِيمَ טَاكِشَاءْ ('åzīm pādlshāh) a great monarch, ('åzīm devlett) a great state.

Some adjectives take a substantive as a complement to restrict their application. In Turkish construction, this complement precedes, with or without a preposition ; as, صُو طُؤولُ


 formable with nature.

The Turkish adjective (glbl) like, follows substantives, the personal pronoun of the 3rd pers. plur., the demonstratives plural, the interrogatives singular and plural, and the compound relatives, when its complements, without any change occurring in them ; as, صُو كِ (sủ glbl) like water; (ânler
 (klm głbt) like whom? نَلْرَكِّ (nèler głbl) like what things?

 other pronouns are put in the genitive, when complements to

 (bùnùñ glbl) like this; \&c.

Section IV. Syntax of the Numerals.
The Turkish and Persian cardinals always precede their substantive, and this is usually left in the singular, whatever the number ; as, اِيكى قِفتْ (lkl chlft) two pairs; دُو جِهانْ (dủ jlthan) the two worlds (present and future). But the Arabic cardinal follows, the construction is made Persian, and the
 five senses; جَهَاتِ سِتَّه (jlhâtl sttte) the six directions (in space), six sides (of a solid).

The Turkish and Persian numerals precede the adjectives of the same substautive; as do also the Arabic (though after the


 hłre) the five external senses.

But if, instead of an adjective, a descriptive phrase should qualify the substantive, the Turkish numeral comes between

 błrł bèsh kèysé äqchả̉ eddèr yèdł êlmă̊s) seven diamonds, each of the value of five purses of money.

A Turkish cardinal number can be placed after a substantive in the genitive, singular or plural. It does not then define the number of that substantive, but of a definite portion of what


 the rooms.

Very often, between the Turkisl cardiual number and its substantive, another substantive is introduced, with the sense of individual or individuals, as in our phrases "ten head of cattle," "six sail of ships," \&cc. This substantive varies in Turkish according to the nature of the things defined by the numeral. For men it is ${ }^{\text {in }}$ (nefer) individual; for beasts it is


vulg. pårå) piece; for things usually counted it is عَدْ (cåded) number; for things not usually counted it is בَانَـ (dāne, vulg.





 swords ; بِرْ زَنْيْرْ فِيلْ one elephant.

 doquzunju âlay) the sixty-ninth regiment.

The Arabic ordinals follow; as, بَابٍ خَاعِسْ (bäbỉ khāmls) chapter the fifth.

The Persian ordinals generally precede, but sometimes follow.

The Turkish distributive numerals are used to express the rates of collection as well as of distribution; as, يَشَرْبَازَ وِيْردِيلَرْ
 (annlarrả besher pårâ verlldt) to them five paras each were distributed.

For emphasis sake, the simpler distributives are often
repeated ; but they are then generally used as substantives; as,
 ( l (klshèr 1klsher alliñzz) take ye (them) two apiece each (of you), or, take you (or thou, them) two together each time.

## Section V. Syntax of Pronouns.

The demonstrative pronoun, when an adjective, precedes
 (bul ủch hłyâk gyâzèl gellnnlık qiz) these three tall, handsome, nubile girls.

The suffixed possessive pronoun is not, in literary style, necessarily attached to its substantive, but to the last word of the combination of substantive, adjective, \&c., to which it belongs. Thus, مَحْومْ يَرْبرمْ (mèrhūm pedẻrlm) my late father, may be rendered in the Persian form, بَدِرْمرحوْمٌ (pedder-1 mèrhūmum) ; so also, وْجْ خَاطِرْ خَواهِمْ (vèjh-íl khātỉr-kh'āhỉmiz) the
 (âqtār-î shàrqìyye sèr-åskèr-1 zấfèr-rèbbêrl) the victorious commander-in-chief of the eastern districts ; بُ بَاغِكْ هِ
 błhłsht-fntimāst) each soul-enrapturing, paradise-prognosticating spot of this garden.

The corroborative of the suffixed possessive pronoun of

Turkish construction precedes the whole combination to which the possessive is suffixed; aud this corroborative is always in the genitive, whether it be a substantive or a pronoun; as, (bèntm mèrhūm pèdertm) my late father;
 room.

One possessive suffix may qualify several substantives ; as,
 family, companions, posterity, and friends.

## Section VI. Syntax of the Verb.

Verbs of the first and second person agree with their nomi-

 you saw, have seen (me, us, them, \&c.).

A verb of the third person must also agree with its subject, if understood; as, ُُوردی (gyủrdủ) he, she, it saw, has seen (it, \&c.);


When the subject is expressed of a verb of the third person, the verb does not always agree with it in number. A singular subject sometimes has its verb in the plural, out of respect or politeness; a plural subject often has its verb in the singular,

 (ùshäqlèrł gatldł) his or their servants came, or have come, are come.

So a verb with several subjects expressed, when all of the third person, singular or plural, may be in the singular ; as,
 shāyān dłr) thousands of prayers for God's acceptance, and all kinds of wishes for God's mercy (on him, \&c.) is (are) fitting.

If one of them be of the second person, singular or plural, and the other or others of the third perion, the verb mast be
 (sắn vè peddertm vè qdoñshàñuz bêrābèr gltdiñ̂z) thou and my father, with your neighbour, went together.

And if one be of the first person, even singular, whether the others be of the second or third, singular or plural, the verb
 (bèn, vè sàn, vè qảradāshĩñ, gy ${ }^{3} r d u ̉ k$ ) $I$, and thou, and thy brother, saw (him, \&c.).

In conversation, ${ }^{\circ}$ دِ and its plural ${ }^{\circ}$, دِرْر are generally omitted at the end of a phrase, affirmative, negative, or interrogative ;
 it is good; إِيو دِكِّ (1ył dyyll) it is not good.

But, in repeating the affirmative or negative words of

(bửle dłr, dèyẩ, tẩsdiq dyledt) he confirmed, saying, "It is so."

In relating the words of another, no alteration is permitted in number, person, or tense of the verb; as, كَ كَوْرِمْ دِيِى (gellirlm, dldł) he said, "I will come" (not as in English, "he said he would come").

When the object of a transitive verb is definite, it is put in
 taken) the horse. But, if the object be indefinite, it remains in the nominative; as, آلَّمْ (ât âldủn) I bought a horse or horses.

Intransitive, like transitive, verbs, govern their indirect objects by means of different prepositions, i.e., the substantives or pronouns are put into different cases according to the verb.
 (اُولُومْدْنْ قَاجِمْتْ (parråyd băqquảq) to look at money (i.e., to take money into account or consideration); صُودَه يُوزْمَنْ
 the sea (i.e., to bathe in the sea); :
 lchln yảpmâq) to do (a thing) out of regard (for some one) ; (haywânå blnmèk) to mount on a beast (horse);
(gemtyé błnmek) to mount (go) on board ship;
 get up, stand up).

Nouns of time and place are often used adverbially (as also is the case in English) without prepositions after verbs; as,
 en) descend, come or go down; يُقَارِى حِيقِ (yưqảrỉ chiq) ascend, mount ; i. e., come or go up. Still, on occasions, prepositions are used with them; as, مَاغَه صَابْ (sagghả̉ så̃p) deviate (turn) to
 vulg. gerl gtt) go back; 梌 ${ }^{\circ}$ (gertdả̉n gall) come from the rear, from behind.

A transitive verb has sometimes two direct objects, one
 ètdller) they made him a musbī (duke, or field-marshal).

An Ottoman compound verb, active or passive, often takes its direct or indirect object into the body of the verb, as the Persian complement of its nominal factor; as, بُو دَقِقَهَيَه تَحْمِيلِ


 capital was made (i.e., the modicum of capital was spent).

## Section VII. Syntax of the Participle.

In conversation, the substantive qualified by a particle, active or passive, is sometimes understood, and the participle is used


 what I shall do.

The active participle present of اُولَأَنْ ${ }^{\circ}$, is is often omitted after Arabic participles, active or passive; as, (rủb'i mêskyūndả vwāqị' mèmāllk ủ bừdān) the countries and towns situated in the inhabited quarter
 kyūr fửnūn $\mathfrak{u}$ mas'ārlf) the sciences and matters of knowledge mentioned in this book.

Active participles govern all their objects in the same way as the verbs from which they derive; so also do the passive participles, excepting only the object they each qualify as an adjective; as, قَوْ آَحَانْ (qå̊pủ achă̊n) he who opens a door;


 mtñ bủnu qåbūl łdelmêyèjèyt sebelb) the reason for which my father will not be able to accept this.

The Persian and Arabic participles are constructed, generally, with their objects, in the same manner as if the participles were substantives ; as, خَالقِ هَرْو جِهَانْ (khāltq-i hèr

 (yèd-1 quddrétlertnnñ malkhlūqù) the creature

 (ressidell kyångyưrè-l cbatrkh-ỉ esirir) which has reached the battlement of the ethereal sphere.

But sometimes Arabic active participles of transitive verbs govern their direct objects as do their verbs; thus, كَ مَذْكَوْرَيِيى مُبـِينْ the said circumstance.

Section VIII. Syntax of the Verbal Nouns and Infinitive.
Turkish verbal nouns are constructed with their subjects,
 (ahmeddñ gâlmèsi) the coming of Ahmed, Ahmed's coming;

 of) coming.

When the subject is a pronoun, it is put in the genitive still,
and the Turkish verbal noun takes the possessive suffix of the

 (anuleriñ gallejeklêll) their future coming.

Turkish verbal nouns and infinitives are constructed with their objects, direct or indirect, exactly as their verbs; thas,


 Ahmed's having written a letter to his father yesterday.

Arabic verbal nouns are constructed with their agents sometimes in the Turkish, sometimes in the Arabic, and sometimes in the Persian manver ; as, ورودٌ (vửūdùm) my arrival;

 (ldāre-i perrgyär-1 èfkyīr) a revolving of the compasses of the thoughts.

Arabic verbal nouns are constructed with their objects in the same manner as the compound verbs formed of them; as,

 an acquiring the science of geography. But they may also be constructed with them as two simple substautives, either in
the Turkish or Persian manner; as, مَرْفَ مَقْدُرْ


In all cases excepting their construction with their subjects or objects, the Turkish verbal nouns and infinitives are constructed in sentences exactly like any other substantives; as,




 (głdè-bllejeyyłmè shůb-hèm vadr) my doubt exists, i. e., $I$ have a doubt as to my being able to go.

## Secrion IX. Syntax of the Gerunds.

The gerunds are not much used in conversation ; there the discourse is broken up into as many sentences as may be
 (gltdłm, gyửrdủm, găldłm, khâbèr vèrdłm) I went; $I$ saw; $I$ came; I gave information.

But, in the literary style, one long phrase, ending with one personal verb, will contain a number of clauses, each ending with a gerund (which thus acts to the ear, as well as to the

 and seeing, on coming back, reported.

When compound verbs are used, the auxiliary gernnds may be omitted once or twice in a long sentence ; as, بِر هوْصِهُ ورو
 $q^{\text {utīd }}{ }^{\text {èd }}{ }^{2} \mathrm{p}, \ldots$. ) ... arriving at a certain place, and sitting down there awhile, .... In this case, however, a conjunction requires to be introduced in lien of the gerund omitted; as is seen in the example given.

The subjects, and direct or indirect objeets, of the gerunds are constructed as with their verbs. But, as the gerunds cannot indicate the person and number of their subjeets, the appropriate personal pronoun must be expressed before them,
 (å̉åm kitāb óquàub) man, reading a book (or books), ......; (fermānỉm stzè v wāsîl olijả̉q) at what time
 shư âdảmỉ gyưrerèk) $I$, seeing thet man, ......; \&c.

## Section X. Syntax of the Adverb.

The adverb precedes the verb or adjective qualified by it;
 (choq gyazell) very pretty.

The negative د. دك (diytl) not, precedes the verb substantive, expressed or understood, but follows the substantive or adjective which it negatives; as, ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{O}$ (genj diytitm) I am not





 third gerund also, put in this same dative case, and thus form
 thou, \&c.) come, came. The agent must be named or under-
 (mekktūbum orayd varinjayddekk) until my letter reach (or reached) there. The tense of this gerund is decided by the context, in like manner as its agent and object.

 (bã̃ñ gyưre) according to me; \&c.
 tively, follow substantives or infinitives in the ablative; as, (kdtabdản dolayí) relatively to (about) a (or the)
 concerning) going.

Although it is not grammatically erroneous, in answering a question, to use the affirmative adverb ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{i}$ (èvet) or (hell) $y e s$, or the negative $\quad$ ( $y$ oq ) or ${ }^{\circ}$ (khdyr) no, when appropriate, it is unidiomatic to do so. The more general custom, whether one of those adverbs be used or not, is to repeat the word or words of the question on which the interrogation turns, with such grammatical modifications as may be necessary. Thus, turning back to the five questions instanced in Chap. II., sect. 21 (p. 151-2), the respective answers may be: 1, أَتْ بَن
 no, the day after; \&c.

## Section XI. Syntax of the Preposition.

The Turkish preposition always follows the word it governs, noun, pronoun, or verbal derivative, as is seen in Chap. II., sections 1 (p. 51), 4 (p. 82), 5 (p. 88), 6 (p. 89), 7 (p. 90), and in Chap. III., section 8 (p. 179); but the Arabic and Persian prepositions always precede; as, (cale 't-tahqiq) in truth; بِرْرَر


 from a new beginning (over again, again).

A preposition may govern two or more substantives in a
 posterity, and friends.

But, as the Arabic and Persian preposition precedes the adjectives that qualify, as well as the substantives qualified, so the Turkish preposition is placed after all these; consequently, in Persian construction, and when the substantive is followed by the possessive suffixes, the Turkish preposition is separated from the substantive it governs, sometimes by a cou-
 (bú mủhlbb-î sādịq-dà) in this faithful friend;
 bâshî) the head of the mountain-like imperial galley.

## Section XII. Syntax of the Conjunction.

 too, also, head the phrase they belong to.

The enclitic conversational دَ, or literary دَ , is placed after the word of a phrase to which special attention is directed;
 tdp galdt) cannon came from Constantinople also; إسْتَنْوْلْدَنْ طُوبْ

دَخْى كَلْدِى (1stảnbolldảnn tỏp dảkhỉ gâldł) cannon, too, came from Constantinople.

This enclitic is repeated after each member of a phrase

 (bèn-dẳ, sận-dẩ, $\}$-dả̉, ủchûmưz głdêrriz) $I$, thou, and he too, will all three go.

It is often placed after a verb in the conditional, its sense
 even should he come ; إِسَدَه (gá
 (gălejejk dlså-dẩ) even should he be about to come (even should he think of coming, or resolve to come).

After other verbs than conditionals, it is enclitic with each that enters a phrase, and answers to our both, followed by and
 come, and see also; ( - , —.
 admire, will also buy.
 or whether, آَكَرْ (Eyèr) if, with (gèr-cht, vulg. gèrchè) or أَكِرْهِ (eyedr-cht, vulg. égèrchè) although, put the verb or verbs

 (eyer gallsả̉) if he come ; آَكَرِّه كَمْشْ إِسَهِدَ (egerchl gallmish isảadâ) although he be even come (even though he be come).

When the copulative, joins one verb or phrase to another, it is pronounced ve, in conformity (to a certain degree) with its original Arabic pronunciation ; but when, in Persian construction, it unites two nouns, substantive or adjective, it takes the vowel-sound of $\mathfrak{u}$ or $\hat{u}$, and joins on, in pronunciation, as though in a syllable, with the consonant preceding it; as,

 tẻn-dürữst) strong and healthy.

The Persian conjunction $\mathbf{S}_{\text {, }}(\mathrm{kt})$ that, always connects two members of a phrase, and should never be supposed to be a relative pronoun in Turkish (as it really is in Persian, as well
 that .... Sometimes the clause that follows shows the canse or reason of that which precedes; the conjunction may then

 jłus-1 mảgfèreté simm-1 esbk bldả nuqū̄d) let us be instant in supplications, and assiduous in moans, for the silver of (man's) tears has been made the coins payable for the wares of (God's) mercy.


After a verb signifying to say (which also may mean, to say to one's self, to think), or to ask, the conjunction STintroduces, what is, was, or will be said or thought; but the question must be in the mood, tense, number, and person, in the very words,

 (sordu ki, bủ nè dtr) he asked, What is this? We see, then, that $S_{\text {, so used, is the equivalent of our sign of quotation, the }}$ inverted commas. We cannot alter the phrase as is our custom, and say, he says he will come, or he asked what that was.

Occasionally, in a certain style, this S. is omitted; as, $^{\text {. }}$ دِيدِى آَىْ شَهْرِيَرْ (dddt: dy shל̉brlyār) he exclaimed, "O nonarch."

But the method more generally used, especially in conversation, and which is the true Turkish mode, is to quote first what was said, asked, or thought, and then immediately to briug in the verb to say, \&c., in its proper tense, number, and person;

 did not see (him, her, it, them, you, \&c.) ; i. e., he said he did not see. In this case, if the verb used be any other than دِيْكَ, the Turkish conjunction دِيُو (dłyù, vulg. déyè), which really is
 or

 or her), saying, Is your health yood? i. e., I asked how he was; (bèlmèybriz, dlyd, tnkyār tdyybrler) they deny, saying, We know not; i. e., they deny, and say they know
 formed an idea, saying (to myself), You will not come ; i. e., I
 ddñtz) saying what (to thyself), art thou come? i. e., what are you come for?

The conjunction كـك sometimes, as in Persian, serves to connect an incidental qualifying phrase to an antecedent noun, as though it were a relative pronoun; but in such case it never undergoes declension or takes a preposition, the following phrase being complete in all its parts; as, حَهُ و سِنَاسْ أُولْ


 lauds are worthy of that uncaused Lord God, of whose infinite power the existence of rivers and the depths of oceans are but a single drop.

The foregoing example shows that it is often difficult or impossible to distinguish whether the phrase that follows is a qualificative, or the exposition of a reason. We might
take it in this latter sense, and translate: for, the existence of rivers, \&c., are but one drop, \&c.

But, in ethical works and the like, generally composed by members of the "űlemā class (Doctors of Canon Law) on a Persian or Arabic model, the clause that follows $\sqrt{5}$, is generally qualificative, and the style is anti-Turkish. Thus : هر هسَ كِهـه (her kees kł dest-1 hlmmelt llả hả̉bl-ł mètinn-1 ăqlả måtésbèbbłs dla, ......); every one who shall take hold of the firm cable of reason with the hand of

 looked upon with a regard for instruction, ......
 kt) perhaps, lest, مَادَامْ_كـه (mà-dām-k1) as long as, since, هـ (mè-bādā kt) lest, مُكْكِ (meyèr kt) unless, require their verbs to be in the optative; as, qalmayil) in order that no power of endurance be left in him;


 (—— gyủzel dla) unless he (she, it) be beautiful.

Section XIII. Syntax of the Interjection.
Some interjections are accompanied by nouns and pronouns, some by nouns only, others have no accompaniment, and some precede verbs.

When accompanied by a noun, the noun is always in the nominative, excepting with the interjection يَاْزِّ (ydziq) ; as,

 stz) $O$, impudent fellow ! آَى قَرْنْدَاشْمْ (ey qardakhỉm) well, brother !
 dféudlm) God's blessing on you, sir! They always precede the noun. The word permits its substantive to be put in the dative; as, بَإِقْ آَمَكِمْ
 alas for my trouble !

When accompanied by a pronoun, except the interjection

 آَفرِينْ آَنَـَـرَه كِيدى is constructed with the accusative of the second person singular, which it may precede or follow ; as, , كِدِ سِى (gidt sânl) or سَتْ كِيدى (stant gldt) faugh, thou (good-for-nothing)!

Interjections indicative of a desire for the future or regret for the past, are constructed with the conditional, aorist or
 (Tilh gatlseyd) O that he had come! One of these, أَآن , is constructed also with the imperative, and expresses vehement desire with the affirmative, or dread with the nega-

 my wish prevail)!

With an imperative, oَه (helie) expresses an invitation or a
 gâlsin) just let him only come !

Arabic phrases are often used as interjections, generally after proper names; as, مَكَّ (melkke-t mẩkèrrèmè, kêrrémả̉-bł 'llāhư tả̉ald) Mekka the Venerated, which may God, who be exalted, cause to be venerated!
 RHis Majesty, the champion of the faith, Sultan Selim Khan, the shadows of whose clemency may God spread over the crowns of the heads of mankind, so long as the months repeat themselves and the years renew themselves!

## ADDENDUM.

In p. 45, after line 5, as a further remark on the uses of letter $g$, the following rule is not without its nse ; viz., -

In a few words of Persian origin only, the letter $g$, following a letter $\dot{C}$, and itself followed by a long vowel-letter 1 , is suppressed aud lost in the pronunciation. Thus خَ $k h^{\prime} \bar{i} n$,

 corrupted in Turkish into khbjảa, khbjảgy ān, kbojảlinq, \&e. In Persian proper, a very few words beginning with $\underset{\rightarrow}{\boldsymbol{\gamma} \text {, without }}$ a following $\mid$, elide the $g$ in like manner in pronouncing; but this is never observed in Turkish, unless it may be in the rhyme-words of ancient poetry. Thus the word خوش (usually read khūsh iu Persian, khbsh in Turkish) is made to rhyme
 read $k h^{\prime}$ ảsh. خود (usually khūd, Turkish khठd) is made to rhyme with "بَ bed ; something after the manner of our poets, who make wind rhyme with find, mind, \&c. This is what is


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[^0]:    1 The Hebrew system is identical with the Arabic as fir as its alphabet goes. Thus: p100, Y 200, w $300, \Omega 400$; beyond this the words are written in full. This incident is a condemnation of the Greek systom for the higher numbers.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ It having been found impracticable to mark in type the varying Ottoman tone-values of the Arahian and Persian long vowels, the atudent mnst learn to supply the numbere 1 and 2 over the long-vowel marks. For this purpoes, he must apply the rules for the short vowels, according ae they follow, or are followed by, a consonant of the soft or hard clase. By practice, the correct habit will he thas acquired; the case of the short vowele teaching the tone, which will then be instinetively nsed when the vowel ie long.

